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JOURNAL

OF THE

Rhode  Island

INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION.

FOR 1847.

EDITED BY HENRY BARNARD,

COMMISSIONER OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

VOL. II.

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C. BURNETT Jr.
1847.

ERRATA.

The haste and other unfavorable circumstances, under which the Editor has been obliged to edit and superintend the publication of this volume of the Journal of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction, in addition to a few typographical errors, has led to the omission on pages 97 and 98, of a description of the furniture used in the schools of the Public School Society of New York, and to the insertion in its place, of plans, which were not intended for this volume. The description which should have been inserted on page 97 and 98, will be found to follow page 130. In the hiatus which follows page 130 there is a mistake in the folios, not an actual omission of pages.

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JOURNAL

OF THE

Rhode Island

INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION.

Vol. II. PROVIDENCE, July, 1847. No. 1.

PROSPECTUS.

The subscriber will publish a *second volume* of the JOURNAL OF THE RHODE ISLAND INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION, under the editorial charge of Henry Barnard, Commissioner of Public Schools.

The first number will be issued in July, and will be published thereafter on the 1st and 15th of each month, or on such days as may suit the official engagements of the editor, until the volume is completed by the publication of at least four hundred pages. Each number will be devoted to a particular subject, or class of documents, and will not be of a uniform number of pages.

The volume will contain the Annual Report of the Commissioner of Public Schools for 1847, and all other official school documents published by him, or by the State since the close of the first volume of the Journal. It is proposed also to include the Annual Reports of the School Committee of the several towns in this State for 1847; also an abstract of the school documents which have been published during the year in the different States where a system of Public or Common schools is established.

TERMS. The price of the Journal will be *one dollar* for a single copy—or five dollars for six copies, or ten dollars for thirteen copies.

Should it be desired, the numbers will be retained until the volume is completed, and then furnished in half sheep binding for ten cents additional for each volume.

All communications respecting the Journal can be made to the subscriber *post paid.*

All subscriptions must be paid on the reception of the first number.

CHARLES BURNET, JR.

PROVIDENCE R. I. JUNE 1847.

A DISCOURSE,

DELIVERED BEFORE THE RHODE ISLAND HISTORICAL SOCIETY,

on the Evening of Wednesday, January 13, 1847,

BY HON. JOB DURFEE, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court.

Published originally at the request of the Society.

[The General Assembly having directed the Commissioner of Public Schools to publish an edition of this truly Rhode Island discourse for gratuitous distribution in the several school districts in this State, he has concluded to issue a part of this edition in the present volume of the

Journal. This discourse is worthy of a wide circulation and of preservation as an eloquent view of the leading principles of civil policy actualized on the soil of Rhode Island—principles which at the time of their adoption here, were looked upon every where as dangerous innovations, but which have since been adopted into the fundamental law of every one of these United States, and are now working their way into the opinions, and practice of European nations.

The great omission which the reader of this discourse, and the student of Rhode Island history cannot fail to notice, is that of the element of public schools, which if it had been introduced early into the legislation of the State, would have made the mind and the soul of every one of her people truly free, by giving to each a disciplined and furnished intellect, and chastened and regulated affections. The free thought and mental vigor which has ever characterized this State, present a broad and sure foundation on which to erect a noble system of popular education.

The following is the Resolution of the General Assembly.

STATE OF RHODE ISLAND AND PROVIDENCE PLANTATIONS.

In General Assembly,
June Session A. D. 1847.

Resolved. That the Commissioner of Public schools be authorized to cause an edition of three thousand copies of the discourse delivered by the Hon. Job Durfee before the Historical Society and the General Assembly at the last January session, to be printed for the purpose of gratuitous distribution in the several School Districts of this State: and that the said Commissioner be authorized to draw upon the General Treasurer for a sum not exceeding one hundred and fifty dollars to pay for said printing and distribution.

TRUE COPY: *Witness.* HENRY BOWEN, *Sec.*

It will be the aim of the Commissioner so to distribute the three thousand copies of the discourse, as to give it immediately the widest circulation, and secure the preservation of the largest number of copies for future use in libraries, and depositories of public documents.]

DISCOURSE.

Gentlemen of the Historical Society:

In consequence of my compliance with the request of your committee—a compliance, perhaps, unfortunate both for you and me—it has become my duty to address you, and our fellow-citizens generally, upon a purely Rhode-Island theme. I shall, accordingly, speak to you of that Idea of Government, which was actualized, for the first time in Christendom, here in this State, by those who described themselves as "a poor colony, consisting mostly of a birth and breeding of the Most High, formerly from the mother-nation in the bishops' days, and latterly from the New-England over-zealous colonies." I shall speak to you of the origin of this idea—of the various forms which it took, in its progress toward its realization here, in minds of much diversity of character and creed; and of that "lively experiment," which it subsequently held forth, that "a most flourishing civil state may stand, and be best maintained, with a full liberty in religious concernments"—a liberty which implied an emancipation of Reason from the thraldom of arbitrary authority, and the full freedom of inquiry in all matters of speculative faith.

To the founders of this State, and particularly to Roger Williams, belong the fame and the glory of having realized, for the first time, this grand idea, in a form of civil government; but we should honor them at the expense of our common nature, should we say that they were the first to maintain that Christ's kingdom was not of this world, and that the State had no right to interfere between conscience and God. The idea must, undoubtedly, have had its historical origin in him who first endured persecution for conscience's sake. "Saul! Saul! why persecutest thou me?" is a voice, implying a denial of right, which comes with a sudden shining round about of light, not only from Heaven, but has come, and shall ever come, from the depths of persecuted humanity, through all time; and, in proportion to the violence and spread of the persecution, has been, and shall be, the depth and extent of the cry. It is the protest of that all-present Reason, which is, at once, the master of the individual and the race, against the abuse made by the creature, of its own delegated authority. And that time never was, and never shall be, when humanity could, or can, recognize the right of any human power to punish for the expression of a mere conscientious belief.

By what fraudful craft or cunning, then, was it, that this power to punish in matters of conscience came to be established throughout all Christendom, and has been continued down, in some countries, to the present day?—and how happened it that the odious office of punishing

heretics, and enforcing uniformity of opinion, fell, both in Roman Catholic and Protestant countries, on the civil magistrates? This question is fully answered by history.

When men had been brought to believe that they had found a divine and infallible teacher in the Bishop of Rome, it was not difficult to induce them to think that whatever opinion they might entertain, which he thought proper to condemn as heretical, was, in truth, a sin, which they were bound to renounce, on the peril of their salvation; and that then, on having renounced it, upon undergoing a voluntary penance, directed by some ecclesiastical authority, they might be assured of an absolution, and full restoration to the bosom of the church. Thus far it was believed that the spiritual power might proceed. But then, there were frequently those who were much more confident in the truth of their opinions than in the infallibility of the Pope, or their priestly advisers; and such persons, on their opinions being adjudged heretical, were, after all suitable admonition, condemned as incorrigible heretics, and excommunicated.

Yet this was not an extirpation of the heresy; and the Roman Church held that she had a divine right to extirpate heresy; and yet she also adopted the maxim, *Ecclesia abhorret a sanguine*—the Church abhors blood. The holy Church then could not take the *life* of the heretic; and, therefore, she contrived to shift off this odious office upon the secular authority, by imposing an oath upon the princes of Europe, generally, to sustain the Catholic faith, and to extirpate heresy out of the land. It was thus that it fell to the lot of the kings of Europe, and their subordinates, to become the executioners of the Church of Rome. And when the Reformation was established over a part of Europe, national churches took the place of the Roman church, and laws were passed to enforce uniformity; and thus, even in Protestant countries, the ungrateful task of punishing non-conformity and heresy fell on the civil magistrate.

It was by such craft that the power to punish for matters of conscience came to be established, both in Roman Catholic and Protestant countries, and that in both, the odious office of inflicting the punishment fell on the secular authorities.

But though the subjects of the Roman Church may have tacitly conceded to the Pope his claim to infallibility, and have submitted to an authority in the civil magistrate thus usurped over conscience and Reason; yet it is not hence to be inferred that the inborn consciousness of soul-liberty—of the title of Reason to be free—became, thereupon, utterly extinguished and lost. Indeed, long before the Reformation—long before the time of Luther—there were great numbers in Europe, who had, themselves, acquired some knowledge of the Scriptures, and had, consequently, adopted opinions quite inconsistent with the doctrines and traditions of the Church of Rome; and they appeared to be opinions in which they had abundantly more confidence than in the infallibility of the Pope. Now, when these people came to be condemned as heretics, and consigned to the secular authorities, to undergo the sentence and punishment of death, can any one suppose that the appearance of the civil magistrate deceived them into the belief that they had indeed committed a crime? Can any one doubt that they questioned *his* right—as they had questioned the infallibility of the Pope—to come in, with the sentence of death, between their consciences and their God, for a matter of faith in which their eternal

hopes were grounded? Indeed, their deaths were the strongest possible protest against the legitimacy of the power; since no one can be supposed to adhere to an opinion, as right, for which the magistrate may rightfully put him to death. The actual denial of the right of the civil power to interfere in matters of conscience, must, therefore, be coëval with the assumption of the authority.

But men sometimes act on a truth which they feel, though they do not clearly express it in words; and now was this denial of the claims of the secular authority put forth in language, and taught as a doctrine? History is not silent on this point. By a mere glance at its pages, we may follow the progressive development of the inborn idea of the rights of conscience and Reason in the express denial of the legitimacy of the authority usurped over both, from the earliest dawn, to the broad day, of the Reformation. Time will not permit me to dwell on this point. I am now hastening to the political manifestations of this idea, and I can do little more than say, that its protestations, against the exercise of secular power in the concerns of conscience, may be traced down to their results in the Reformation, more or less distinctly, in the doctrines of the Waldenses and Albigenses. These were names designating persons of a great variety of opinions, on minor points, and by which dissenters from the Roman Church were generally distinguished, long before the appearance of Luther. The doctrines of these dissenters, when first noticed, strongly resembled those of the primitive Christians. I cannot enumerate them; but, like the first settlers of this State, they seem to have regarded "Christ as king in his own kingdom;" and, by separating the church from the world, and by repudiating the Roman Church *on account* of its assumption of secular authority, they manifestly denied the right of the civil magistrate to interfere in the concerns of conscience. These people were early found in the valleys of Piedmont, and, at a later period, in the south of France. A crusade was, however, instituted against them by Innocent III., and they were driven from their homes, with conflagration and slaughter, into almost every European kingdom. Rome, thus undesignedly, scattered the seeds of the Reformation broadcast over Europe; and with them those principles and doctrines which expressly separated the Church from the secular power.

The doctrines of the Waldenses had been widely diffused at the dawn of the Reformation, and when Luther appeared, the number of dissenters from the Roman Church, who had adopted these, or doctrines similar to these, were great in every country in Europe; but particularly in Germany. Europe was, in fact, thus made ripe for an insurrection in favor of soul-liberty against soul-oppression, in every form, and particularly against that despotism which the Church asserted, and which it maintained in the last resort, by the agency of the secular power, over the reason and the consciences of its subjects. And, indeed, the Reformation was nothing less than an effort made by this Reason for its own emancipation.

But to break down its prison-walls was not to build its own house; to emancipate itself, was not to secure and establish its own freedom; and, therefore, in the very effort which it made for its emancipation, it necessarily kept this end in view—namely, the ultimate establishment of its own proper asylum, its own free home—so fortified, as to secure it against every attempt to enslave it. Let me endeavor to give this idea a more philosophical expression. This Reason exists in humanity, only in and through

the individual mind. Now, nothing could secure and establish its freedom but *the realization of the individual mind itself—free as its Creator had made it—in a congenial, social mind, standing out, fully developed and expressed, in correspondently free political institutions.* This was the idea; this was the then deeply-involved conception, to which the general mind of Protestant Europe gravitated, unconsciously, but of its own law, as to a common centre. I say unconsciously; but it had its vague and indeterminate aspirations and hopes. It ever had its object dimly and indistinctly before it, though receding at every approach. It was this idea which, for generations, shook Europe to its centre; it was this idea which, when the spiritual domination of Rome was overthrown, and Protestant Europe stood forth in renovated institutions, still haunted the minds of our English ancestry, as a great conception, which had not been, but might yet be, realized; it was this idea which brought them "from the mother-nation in the bishops' days," and finally, "from the New-England over-zealous colonies," here, to the forest-shaded banks of the Mooshausic, where they, at last, fully realized it, in the social order and government of a State.

It may not be inappropriate to trace this idea, through the several stages of its progress, to its realization here. It will, at least, give us confidence in that which may follow, and will, I flatter myself, show that we are not dealing with a phantom of the imagination, but with a sober historical reality.

When the several Protestant governments of Europe had thrown off the spiritual dominion of the Pope, great was the expectation of their subjects that the individual mind would be no longer held in spiritual bondage. This expectation, however, was destined to a considerable disappointment. These governments had indeed thrown off the dominion of the Pope, but they substituted, in the place of it, a dominion of their own. Each established its own national church—Lutheran, Calvinistic, or Episcopal. The king, or head of the nation, became the head of the established order; and laws were enacted, or ordinances promulgated, to enforce uniformity and punish heretics. It is evident, however, that here had been a progress toward the realization of the idea which had caused the Reformation. In Continental Europe, the Lutheran and the Calvinist, under their respective church and state governments, were in the full enjoyment of that soul-liberty which would have been denied to them by the Pope. Each of their minds found its place in a congenial social mind: their idea of soul-liberty was realized. But how was it with those who could not conform to the established church? They were obnoxious to the laws; they were disfranchised, or punished for non-conformity, or heresy. That soul-liberty, for which they had struggled and suffered so much, during the trials of the Reformation, had not been realized; and they were, in respect to conscience, out of legal protection, and objects of persecution. And this was particularly the case in England, the fatherland of our ancestors. The Reformation had there been commenced, not by the people—not by a Luther and his associates—but by the government itself, and for the interest and the purposes of the government. It was commenced in the reign of Henry VIII.; and, after a sanguinary struggle during the reign of Philip and Mary, was at length recognized as fully established, in the reign of Elizabeth.

This event terminated, for ever, the spiritual dominion of the Pope in England, and established Episcopacy as an integral part of the monarchy, with the sovereign at its head. Here, too, was a progress toward the realization of the great idea, but it was a progress made only for the benefit of the Episcopalian; and, indeed, for his benefit only while he continued to adhere to that particular faith. The moment that reason or conscience carried him beyond the prescribed limits, he fell under the ban of Church and State, as a non-conformist or heretic. Nor did he find himself alone. Many there were, who, from the first establishment of the Church of England, thought that the Reformation had not been carried to a sufficient extent; and that the soul-liberty, for which they had endured so much, had not been realized. They were comprehended under the general name of Non-conformists, and consisted of those called Brownists, Puritans, Congregationalists, Independents, and so forth. Neither of these denominations felt that their idea of religious liberty had been realized in an Episcopal Church and State. On the contrary, they felt that how much soever of liberty there might be for the Episcopalian, there was but little for them. A part of those called Puritans, formed themselves into associations or churches, crossed the Atlantic, and established themselves at Plymouth, Salem, and Boston, and became the first settlers of New-England.

They sought these shores, to establish here, far from English bishops and their tyranny over reason and conscience, religious liberty for themselves and their posterity. This, at first, certainly seems to promise the final accomplishment of the great object of the Reformation—even the entire emancipation of the individual mind from spiritual thraldom, and the establishment of its freedom in the bosom of a congenial community. But, in fact, it proved to be only another step toward that end. What they meant by religious freedom, was not the freedom of the individual mind from the domination of the spiritual order, but merely the freedom of their particular church; and just as the English government had thrown off the tyranny of the Pope, to establish the tyranny of the bishops, they threw off the tyranny of the bishops, to establish the tyranny of the brethren. But still, a small community, under the rule of brethren, is nearer to an individual than a nation under a monarch; and the establishment, here, of these churches or religious associations, even under their ecclesiastical and civil forms, proved to be a great approximation toward the realization of the full freedom of the individual mind in congenial social institutions. True, they established nothing but the liberty of Church and State corporations, and of their respective members; but it was easier to break from the restraints imposed by a petty community, than from those imposed by the government and people of England; especially when the daring adventurer had the wilderness before him. And the form, which these religious associations took, was particularly exposed to the liability of provoking disaffection, even among themselves.

Their Church and State governments were essentially the same institution, under different names. The spiritual power was brought down to earth, and into all the relations of private and public life. It appeared in their laws—their judicial proceedings—in the administration of the government, and in all the movements of the State. Nothing of importance was done without the advice of the minister and ruling elders; and we

may well suppose that, under such a form of government, politics and religion were identical. It was designed to make men religious according to law; and there could not be two parties in the State, without there being also two parties in the Church; and to question the authority of either, was to provoke the resentment of both. The brethren were, indeed, free as long as they continued brethren; but Reason was, at that time, moving on to its emancipation, and it could dilate on nothing which did not bring it directly or indirectly into conflict with the Church. It, therefore, soon happened, and particularly in Massachusetts, that numbers of the brethren, of diverse minds in matters of faith, lost their place in the Church, were cast out, and exposed to the penal inflictions of the civil authorities.

Among the earliest, if not the very earliest, of these, was Roger Williams, the founder of this State. He had sought New-England (A. D. 1631) in the expectation that he might here enjoy that religious liberty which was denied him in the mother-country. He was a minister of the gospel. He at first preached in Plymouth, and afterwards became a minister of the church at Salem. He freely expressed his opinion on various subjects. He affirmed that the king's patent could not, of itself, give a just title to the lands of the Indians. He maintained that the civil magistrate had no right to interfere in matters of conscience, and to punish for heresy or apostacy. He contended that "the people were the origin of all free power in government," but that "they were not invested by Christ Jesus with power to rule in his Church;" that they could give no such power to the magistrate, and that to "introduce the civil sword" into this spiritual kingdom, was "to confound heaven and earth, and lay all upon heaps of confusion." In effect, he called upon the Church to come out from the magistracy, and the magistracy to come out from the Church; and demanded that each should act within its appropriate sphere, and by its appropriate means. It was then, for the first time, that the startling thought of a complete separation of Church and State was uttered on these Western shores; and it was then, also for the first time, that the individual mind, free in the sovereign attributes of Reason, stood forth before the Massachusetts authorities, and boldly claimed its emancipation, in the realization of its own true idea of government.

Such a mind was manifestly too large for the sphere of a Church and State combination. It had already broken from its bondage, and now stood out, independent, individual, and alone. Roger Williams was necessarily banished by the Massachusetts authorities. He was sentenced to depart from their jurisdiction within six weeks. But he went about, "to draw others to his opinion," and he proposed "to erect a plantation about the Narragansett bay." The rumor of this reached the ears of the magistracy; and, to defeat his intent, which had for them a most alarming significance, they proposed to send him to England, by a ship then lying in the harbor of Boston. He eluded their quest; plunged into the forest-wilderness; and, after spending the winter among its savage, but hospitable, inhabitants, attempted to form a plantation at Seekonk; but, defeated in this, came, at last, into the valley of the Mooshausic, and here, with a small number of associates, of like aspirations, realized that idea of government, in its first form, which had so long allured, but still evaded, the pursuit of nations and men.

We have thus traced this idea of government, from the first indistinct expressions of itself in the doctrines of the Waldenses, through the struggles of that revolution known as the Protestant Reformation; we have next noticed the imperfect realizations of itself, in the Church and State governments of Europe; we have then seen it cross the Atlantic, in the form of small religious associations, to be again reproduced, imperfectly, in a combination of ecclesiastical and civil institutions; but we have now seen it, impersonated in the individual man, breaking from these restraints, and going forth into the wilderness, there to establish itself in an infant community, as the last result of centuries of effort.

We start, then, with this important fact, well worthy of being for ever fixed in every Rhode-Island mind: namely, that it was *here* that the *great idea*, which constituted the very soul of that religious movement which so long agitated all Europe, *first took an organic form* in a civil community, and *expressed itself in a social compact.*

Let us for a moment attend to the words of that compact; let us hearken to this, its first free expression of itself. We ought not to expect it to announce itself in the clear, strong tones of manhood; for it can speak, at first, only through an infant organization: it will only make known its advent into the material world, by lisping its earliest wants; but, then, it will lisp them so clearly and distinctly, as to leave nothing to be misunderstood.

"We, whose names are hereunder, desirous to inhabit the town of Providence, do promise to subject ourselves, in active and passive obedience, to all such orders or agreements as shall be made for public good of the body, *in an orderly way*, by the major assent of the present inhabitants, masters of families, incorporated together into a town-fellowship, and such as they shall admit unto them, *only in civil things.*"*

Here the great idea resolves itself, manifestly, into two elements—Liberty and Law; the one, necessarily implied; the other, clearly and determinately expressed. Liberty, Soul-Liberty, they take from no earthly power or being. It is the gift of God, in that Reason which is within them, as His law, and which human authority can neither rightfully enlarge nor diminish. In this, its exalted and exalting element, the reason is left to deal freely, and according to its own method, with the Divine, the Eternal, the Infinite, the Absolute, and all that pertains thereto, without let or hinderance. But in the region beneath, in this *meum* and *tuum* world, the proper sphere of the common-sense understanding of mankind—where man may jostle man, where each may claim to occupy the same space, to possess the same thing, to do the same act—they each joyfully accept law at the hands of their fellows, cautiously requiring that it should be *only in these*, their *civil things.*

We have now this idea, with its two elements, as it first manifested itself in the infant community of Providence; but it was destined to extend thence, and organize itself in several towns. And, indeed, fully to try its capacity for government, it should take form in a population of a

* In this compact, we have a government founded on the relations of domestic life—a Patriarchal Republic, ruled by the "*masters of families.*" What Bill of Rights ever so effectually secured soul-liberty as this single phrase, "*only in civil things?*"

great variety of religious creed, and exhibit itself in a diversity of human elements—elements antagonistical, and, in some respects, even irreconcileable: for if they be perfectly homogeneous, such as Church and State require, they cannot give this idea the slightest development. Now, in point of fact, what were these elements?

Why, they were made up of men and women, of a diversity of creeds, who, flying from the soul-oppression of the governments of Europe, and the neighboring colonies, came hither to enjoy soul-liberty. Shortly following the settlement of Providence, the town of Portsmouth and the town of Newport were formed, and the settlement of Warwick was commenced; each with the same object: namely, the enjoyment of soul-liberty, in security from the soul-oppressors of Massachusetts and other colonies. In proof of this diversity of faith, we might cite Dr. Mather, if he could be considered trustworthy authority for that purpose. He represents us to be, at this period, "a colluvies of Antinomians, Familists, Anabaptists, Anti-Sabbatarians, Arminians, Socinians, Quakers, and Ranters; every thing in the world but Roman Catholics and real Christians; so that if a man," continues he, "had lost his religion, he might find it at this general muster of opinionists." Well, the Rhode-Island idea may readily accept all the diversity which the Doctor has given it; for it knows how to organize it, and subject it to order and law. But we must lay the venerable Doctor aside: he lovingly deals too freely with unrealities and monstrosities of all sorts, to be reliable authority in spiritualities of any kind. Of what, then, did this diversity mainly consist?

Why, here were the plain matter-of-fact Baptists, ever the unyielding lovers of religious freedom—ever the repellers of State interference in the concerns of conscience—tracing their genealogy back through the Waldenses, even to the great original Baptist, John. Here, chiefly at Newport, were the familistical Antinomians—so called by their persecutors—the highly-gifted Ann Hutchinson for a season at their head, confiding in the revelations of the indwelling spirit, and a covenant of free grace. Here, too, chiefly at Warwick, was the mystical Gortonist, dimly symbolizing his doctrines in cloudy allegory. Here also was the Fifth Monarchy man, preparing for the Second Advent, and the New Reign on earth. Here, every where, was the Quaker—a quiet, demure, peace-loving non-resistant, in the world of the flesh; but who, on taking fire in the silence of his meditations, became indomitable in the world of spirit, and gave the unresisting flesh, freely, to bondage and death, in vindication of his faith. And here also, it is true, were free-thinkers of all sorts; some who had opinions, and some who had none. Surely, even before other denominations had established themselves within our borders, here were elements of diversity, all-sufficient to try the capacity of the Rhode-Island Idea of government.

Amid such variety of mind, there was little danger that men would melt down into one homogeneous mass—a result to which a Church and State combination ever tends—and lose their moral and intellectual individualities. Such variety of mind could not fail to be active, and to beget action, and to promote and preserve original distinctiveness of character, in all diversity. And such, we find, was the fact. I will endeavor to delineate the characters of a few of the leading minds of the colony, at this time, that we may form some faint conception of the originality and diversity

of character, which marked those who constituted the undistinguished numbers that they led.

Roger Williams and William Harris were the heads of two distinct political parties in Providence. Two marked and prominent traits of intellect gave a strong and decisive outline to the character of Williams: namely, originality of conception in design, and unyielding perseverance in execution. These, every noted fact of his life clearly indicate and prove. He could assert the right of the natives to the soil that contained the bones of their ancestors, and maintain it against the patent of England's sovereign, though he roused the wrath of a whole community against him. He could conceive a new idea of government, and contend for it, against Church and Court, with the penalty of banishment or death before him. He could be "sorely tossed for fourteen weeks, in a bitter cold winter season, not knowing what bed or bread did mean," rather than renounce this new idea. He could seat himself down amid savage nations—study their language, soothe their ferocious dispositions, make them his friends—that he might actualize, in humanity, his yet untried conception. He could write tracts in defence of this peculiar conception, while engaged at the hoe and oar, toiling for bread—while attending Parliament, in a variety of rooms and places—and sometimes in the field, and in the midst of travel. He could, at the age of threescore and ten, row thirty miles in one day, that he might engage in a three-days' discussion with George Fox, on some knotty points of divinity. He was, indeed, a man of the most unyielding firmness in support of his opinions; but no one can say that he ever suffered his firmness to degenerate into obstinacy. Whatever his doctrines were, he was sure to practice upon them to the utmost extent; and if further reflection, or that practice, showed that they were erroneous, he cheerfully abandoned them. He was, indeed, a remarkable man, and one of the most original characters of an age distinguished for originality of conception.

Harris was a man of ardent temperament, of strong intellectual powers—bold, energetic, ever active, and ever persevering to the end, in whatever cause he undertook. Nature seems to have supplied the deficiencies of his early education. Without having made the law a study, he became the advocate of the Pawtuxet purchasers, in their suit against the towns of Providence, Warwick, and others; and of Connecticut, in her claims against Rhode-Island to the Narragansett country. He was rather fitted for the practical, than the speculative; for the sphere of the senses, than for the sphere of the ideal. He could not, like Williams, contemplate both spheres at the same time in their mutual relations; and the consequence was, that the moment he passed into the ideal, he became a radical, and was brought, at once, into violent collision with Williams. Basing his theories, for a time, at least, on conscience, he contended that any person who could conscientiously say that he ought not to submit to any human authority, should be exempt from all law. He asserted and defended this position in a book; yet he was by no means a non-resistant himself. When he obtained political power, he wielded it with such effect against his adversaries, that they called him the *Fire-brand*. Like most men of genius, or eccentricity, who lead an active life, he has a touch of romance in his history. He had several times, in the prosecution of the complicated controversies in which he was engaged, crossed the Atlantic to the mother-

country. Upon the eve of embarking on his last voyage, as if seized with a presentiment of his destiny, he made his will, and had it forthwith proved before the proper authorities. He then left port for England; but, on the voyage, he was taken by a Barbary corsair, carried into Algiers, was there sold into bondage, and detained, as a slave, for one year. He was then ransomed; and, after traveling through Spain and France, he reached London, and there died shortly after his arrival. The mind of Harris was strong; that of Williams, comprehensive.

Samuel Gorton, the chief man of the settlement of Shawomet, (or Warwick,) was a person of the most distinctive originality of character. He was a man of deep, strong feelings, keenly alive to every injury, though inflicted on the humblest of God's creatures. He was a great lover of soul-liberty, and hater of all shams. He was a learned man, self-educated, studious, contemplative; a profound thinker; who, in his spiritual meditations amid ancient Warwick's primeval groves, wandered off into infinite and eternal realities, forgetful of earth and all earthly relations. He did indeed clothe his thoughts, at times, in clouds; but then, it was because they were too large for any other garment. No one, who shall rivet his attention upon them, shall fail to catch some glimpse of giant limb and joint, and have some dim conception of the colossal form that is enshrouded within the mystic envelopment. Yet, in common life, no one was more plain, simple, and unaffected, than Gorton. That he was courteous, affable, and eloquent, his very enemies admit; and even grievously complain of his seducing language. He was a man of courage; and when roused to anger, no hero of the *Iliad* ever breathed language more impassioned or effective. Nothing is more probable than that such a man, in the presence of the Massachusetts magistracy, felt his superiority, and moved and spoke with somewhat more freedom than they deemed suited to their dignity. Far more sinned against than sinning, he bore adversity with heroic fortitude, and, if he did not conquer, he yet finally baffled every effort of his enemies.

William Coddington and John Clarke, two of the leading characters of the island towns, were both men of well-balanced and well-educated minds; less remarkable for originality of thought, than for clear understanding and practical judgments. They constituted a very fortunate equipoise against the eccentricity and enthusiasm of such original geniuses as Williams and Gorton. The former furnished the ballast, and the latter the sails, of the ship. Each was necessary to the other, and both were indispensable to the whole.

Coddington, before he left Boston, was one of the chief men of Massachusetts. He was an assistant, re-chosen several times; treasurer of the colony, and a principal merchant in Boston. He was grieved at the proceedings of the Court against Mr. Wheelwright and others; and came to befriend and assist them on their removal to Newport. He was a common-sense, sober, staid, worthy man. The political difficulty into which he was brought, is as likely to have sprung from his virtues as his failings. He had in him a little too much of the future for Massachusetts, and a little too much of the past for Rhode-Island, as she then was. He died Governor of Rhode-Island, and a member of the Friends' Society.

Clarke was a man of more active and effective zeal in the cause of civil and religious liberty, than Coddington; and was highly competent

to have charge of its interests in the highest places. He was mainly instrumental in procuring the charter of 1663. Though originally a physician in London, he became Pastor of the First Baptist Church in Newport. He was a man of learning; the author of some tracts, touching the persecutions in New-England; and left, in manuscript, a Concordance and Lexicon—"the fruit of several years' labor." To do full justice to Portsmouth and Newport, it should be added, that their first settlers were, generally, men of more property, and better education, than those of Providence. But—

* * * Fuimus Troes, fuit Ilium *
* * * * * Omnia Jupiter Argos
Transtulit.

Such were the leading minds of this State, while yet in its rudimental condition, awaiting a transition to a more perfect form. And I might now say something of the impress which these characters, and their like, have manifestly left on their posterity; but this would be foreign to my present purpose. I have described them as they exist in the conceptions given by History, that we may have some notion of the diversity and originality of the contemporary moral and intellectual forces which were brought into action by them.

Now let us recollect that all this diversity and distinctive originality of character, were to be found within four little neighborhoods, consisting at first of a few families, and, as late as 1663—the utmost range of my present view—of not more than three or four thousand souls. Upon minds thus diverse, original, enthusiastic, active, and, in some respects, conflicting—each bent upon the enjoyment of the most perfect soul-liberty, consistent with a well-ordered community—the Rhode-Island idea, subsisting the same in each and all, took form—stood out in a constituted people—lived, breathed, and thought, in an organization of its own.

When you look for the Constitution of this State, in its essential form, go not to compacts subscribed by men; go not to charters granted by kings; go not to Constitutions given by majorities—they are but faint and imperfect expressions of the great reality; but go to this grand idea, coming down from the distant past—struggling through the blood and turmoil of warring nations—passing through the fiery ordeal of Church and State persecution; and here, at last, find it—standing out—realized—incarnated—in its own appropriated and peculiar people.

This idea, thus realized, consisted, as already stated, of two elements—liberty and law—the pure Reason above, and the common-sense understanding beneath. There is no necessary conflict between these two elements; on the contrary, each is necessary to the proper existence of the other. Yet we shall find, as we follow the internal development of this idea, that these two elements frequently encounter, and sharply contend for victory. The idea being thus given, every new occasion will call for a new application, which will infallibly bring these elements into action. And now let us follow it in some of its manifestations here in Providence, then a small village on the banks of the Mooshausic.

Would that it were in my power, by a mesmeric wave of the hand, to bring Providence before you, as she then was. You would see the natural Mooshausic, freely rolling beneath his primeval shades, unobstructed by

bridge, unfringed by wharf or made land, still laving his native marge—here expanding in the ample cove—there winding and glimmering round point and headland, and, joyous in his native freedom, passing onward, till lost in the bosom of the broad-spreading Narragansett. You would see, beneath the forest of branching oak and beech, interspersed with dark-arching cedars and tapering pines, infant Providence, in a village of scattered log huts. You would see each little hut overlooking its own natural lawn, by the side of fountain or stream, with its first rude enclosure of waving corn; you would see the stanch-limbed draught-horse grazing the forest-glade; you would hear the tinkling of the cow-bell in the thicket, and the bleating of flocks on the hill. You would see the plain, home-spun human inhabitants—not such as tailors and milliners make, but such as God made; real men and women, with the bloom of health on their cheeks, and its elasticity and vigor in every joint and limb. Somewhat of an Acadian scene this—yet it is not, in reality, precisely what it seems. A new occasion has arisen in this little community, which requires a new application of their idea of the State.

Oddly enough—or, rather, naturally enough—this occasion has arisen out of the most interesting of domestic relations. Joshua Verin, that rude, old-fashioned man, with his Church and State idea still clinging to him, has been putting restraints upon the conscience of his wife. Yes, she is desirous of attending Mr. Williams' meetings, "as often as called for," and hearing his Anabaptistical discourses; and her husband has said, "she *shall not;*" and the consequence is that the whole community is in a buzz—the fundamental idea has been infringed. A town meeting is called on the subject, and a warm debate ensues; for Verin has his friends, as well as his wife. The proposition is, that "Joshua Verin, for breach of covenant in restraining liberty of conscience, be withheld the liberty of voting, till he declare the contrary." "And there stood up," says Winthrop, "one Arnold, a witty man of their company, and withstood it, telling them that when he consented to that covenant, he never intended it should extend to the breach of any ordinance of God, such as the subjection of wives to their husbands, and so forth; and gave divers solid reasons against it. Then one Greene, he replied, that if they should restrain their wives, all the women in the country would cry out upon them. Arnold answered thus: 'Did you pretend to leave the Massachusetts, because you would not offend *God* to please *men*, and would you now break an ordinance and commandment of God, to please *women?*'" Winthrop, naturally enough, gives the best of the argument to Arnold; but he may not be fairly entitled to it.

It is the earliest record of a struggle in this State, between new-born Liberty and ancient Law. If the facts were, that Mrs. Verin, after faithfully discharging all her duties as a wife and mother, felt herself in conscience bound to attend Mr. Williams' meetings, and her husband restrained her, it was just such a restraint on conscience as was inconsistent with the new idea of government; and the question, on this supposition, was correctly decided. Liberty won the victory; and Joshua Verin, for a breach of covenant in restraining liberty of conscience, was properly withheld the liberty of voting till he declared the contrary.

But there was another occasion for the application of the fundamental idea, not more important in principle, but far more serious in its conse-

quences. It arose from an attempt of Liberty to come down upon earth, and realize herself entire, to the complete overthrow and destruction of all law and order. It was an idea given by pure reason—an idea subsisting only by relation to the Universal, the Absolute, the Infinite, the Divine—that sought to come down into a special form of humanity, and supplant the plain common-sense understanding of mankind. It was one of those ideas which propose to navigate the ship by plain sailing, over an ocean vexed with winds, and waves, and varying currents, and perilous with islands, and banks, and ledges, and rocks—where nothing but traverse sailing, aided by the chart, will do. It has been the fortune of Rhode-Island, from her infancy to the present hour, to balance herself between Liberty and Law—to wage war, as occasion might require, with this class of ideas, and keep them within their appropriate bounds. And before certain other States—some of them not fairly out of their cradles—undertake to give her lessons of duty in relation to such ideas, let me tell them that they must have something of Rhode-Island's experience, and have, like her, been self-governed for centuries.

William Harris, as already stated, published and sent to the several towns of the colony, a book, in which he maintained, that he who could say in his conscience that he could not submit to any human legislation, ought to be exempt from the operation of all human laws. You will perceive that he bases this proposition upon the liberty-element of the fundamental idea—that he would transmute the relation which subsists between the secret conscience and God, and with which no human law should interfere, into the relations between man and man, citizen and State, and thereby dissolve the government, establish the sovereignty of each individual, and terminate all law.

We may well suppose that, on such a proposition being announced—and announced in such a manner—by a man so considerable as Harris, the excitement in this little community was violent. The very existence of the fundamental idea was threatened, and the art with which the popular element was supported by free quotations from Scripture, excited no little alarm. Williams harnessed himself for the contest, and came forth in vindication of his idea. He made the distinction between the absolute liberty of conscience, and the civil government, clear, by a happy illustration. The crew of a ship might consist of all varieties of creed, and each individual worship God in his own way; but when called upon to do their duty in navigating the ship, they must all obey the commands of the master. Against his orders, given to that end, they must set up no pretence of soul-liberty—no affected conscientious scruples—do their duty they must, each as one of the crew enlisted for the voyage, on peril of suffering the penalties of mutiny. And he accordingly indicted Harris for high treason. The indictment, however, was not prosecuted to effect. Harris gave bonds for his good behavior, and a copy of the charge and accompanying papers were sent to England; thus ended the indictment, but not the consequences of the discussion.

The principles of the government had, indeed, become better understood; the limits of liberty, and the limits of authority, were doubtless more clearly fixed; but the feuds which the agitation generated, did not stop here. Two parties were created by the controversy; and, passing from questions of Liberty, to questions of Law, touching the limits of the

town, they used against each other whatever weapons they were able to command, and carried on their hostilities for twelve or thirteen years. The town was disorganized in the strife. Two sets of municipal officers were chosen, and two sets of deputies were sent to the General Assembly; nor were the dissentions composed, until the Legislature, by a special act, appointed Commissioners, whose ultimate determinations appear to have restored the old order of things.

Such were the developements which the new idea of government received, here in this town, in the infancy of the State. The first, bearing on the relations of domestic life, and the second on the relations of citizens to each other and to the State. But we are now to consider it in its applications to municipalities—to distinct corporations; and to show how it developed itself, when it gave law to a number of independent communities and resolved them into unity and organic form.

A free and absolute charter of civil incorporation, for the inhabitants of the towns of Providence, Portsmouth, and Newport, to be known by the name of the Incorporation of Providence Plantations in Narragansett Bay in New England, was brought by Roger Williams from England, in 1644; but, owing to the claims of Massachusetts, or other obstruction, it did not go into effect until May, 1647. This charter granted the most ample power to the said inhabitants, and such others as should afterwards inhabit within the prescribed limits, to establish such a form of *civil* government as, by voluntary consent of all or the greater part of them, should be found most suitable in their estates and conditions; and, to that end, to make and ordain such *civil* laws and constitutions, and to inflict such punishments upon transgressors, and for the execution thereof so to place and displace officers of justice, as they or the greater part should by free consent agree unto. I omit the proviso, as of no account here. Under this charter guarantee of the Mother Country, the Rhode-Island idea of government was called upon to organize itself with the most perfect freedom, on the four distinct and independent municipalities—Providence, Portsmouth, Newport, and Warwick. And in what manner do you suppose it did develope itself on these distinct and independent bodies politic? Why, it developed itself in a manner the most natural, if not the most effective. It organized for itself a general form of government, which, if not precisely, was, at least strongly, analogous to the organization of these United States, under their present Constitution. I will give you a brief abstract of their form of government, from the "Annals of Providence"—a magazine of facts, from which I take the liberty to draw copiously.

The whole people, forming the General Assembly, met annually, for the enactment of *general laws*, and for the choice of general officers; as President—an assistant for each town, nominated by the town—General Recorder, &c. A general code of laws, which concerned all men, was first approved by the towns, (as the States adopted the Constitution, and still adopt amendments,) but before it could go into effect, it was ratified by the General Assembly of the whole people. All legislative power was ultimately in the whole people, in General Assembly convened. Towns might propose laws, (as States amendments to the Constitution,) and the approval of a General Court of Commissioners might give them a temporary force; but it was only the action of the General Assembly, (the General Government) which could make them general and permanent for

all persons within the colony. But the towns had their local laws, (as the States have theirs,) which could not be enforced beyond their own limits; and they had their town courts, (as the States have State Courts,) which had exclusive original jurisdiction over all causes, between their own citizens. The President and Assistants composed the general court of trials. They had jurisdiction over all aggravated offenses, and in such matters as should be referred to them by the town courts as too weighty for themselves to determine; and also of *all disputes between different towns*, and *between citizens of different towns and strangers.* "It is apparent," continues the same authority, "that the towns, as such, parted with no more power than they deemed the exigency of the case required. They can scarcely be said to have consented to any thing more than a confederation of independent governments. If they intended a complete consolidation of powers, their acts fall far short of it. He who carefully peruses the whole proceedings of the original assembly of towns of this infant colony, will be struck with the resemblance there is between those towns, after that assembly had closed its labors, and the several States now composing the United States of America, under the Constitution." Yes, it is true, that at this early period, whilst Rhode-Island was yet in her rudiments, this, her Idea of Liberty and Law, took form in an organization that already foreshadowed the Constitution of this Union, and foreshowed its practicability.

But do I say that the framers of the Constitution of the United States found their model here? No; but this I do say, than when the several States of the old confederation, following our lead, had gradually abandoned their Church and State combinations, and adopted the Rhode-Island idea of government, that then, this idea thus given by her, did but repeat itself in its most natural and effective form in the Constitution of the United States, and the organization of the Union. Conceive, if you can, I will not say the practicability, but the possibility, of the Constitution of this Union, without that idea of government, which Rhode-Island was the first to adopt, and, against fearful odds, through long years of trial and tribulation, to maintain. Conceive, if you can, thirteen distinct and diverse Church and State governments taking form under one common Church and State government—and if you cannot, then do not deem that assertion extravagant, which declares that without Rhode-Island's idea of Liberty and Law, this Union would have been impossible. True, others might have adopted it, had there been no Rhode-Island. So others might have given us the theory of gravitation, had there been no Newton. Yet the fame and the glory of the discovery, nevertheless belongs to him. Let Rhode-Island claim her own laurels, and we shall see how many brows will be stripped naked, and how many boastful tongues will be silenced.

But let us follow this idea in its further developements. I can speak only of the most prominent; and am under the necessity of speaking of them with all possible brevity.

The government went on under the charter,—all the towns participating—until 1651, when a commission was granted to Coddington, by the Council of State, to govern the Island with a council chosen by the people, and approved by himself. This is properly called an obstruction —and an obstruction to the free developement of Rhode-Island's peculiar

idea of government, it certainly was. She loved liberty, and she loved law and legal authority; but here was too much of the latter—it trenched too far on the liberty element. The main-land towns recoiled from it—fell back upon themselves, and, in the midst of intestine broils and dissentions, often fomented by Massachusetts, continued their government under the charter. The Island towns submitted; but submitted with deep murmurs and invincible repugnance. Roger Williams and John Clarke were immediately dispatched by the several towns of the colony, as their agents to England; and they soon procured a revocation of Mr. Coddington's commission; who, without reluctance, laid down the extraordinary authority conferred upon him. After some delay, owing to a misunderstanding between the Island and main-land towns, all returned to the old form of government, which continued until the adoption of the charter of 1663.

In the meantime, Rhode-Island. ("the Providence Plantations,") notwithstanding all untoward circumstances, continued to prosper, and her inhabitants to multiply. She was the refuge of the persecuted of all denominations, but particularly of those who suffered from the hands of her New England Sisters. She was their shelter—their ark of safety in the storm. Here were no hanging of Quakers, or witches—no scourge—no chain—no dungeon for difference of opinion. Still it was not, as yet, a place removed from all apprehension, or even from very great annoyance. It, for a season, seemed but as a raft,—formed from the fragments of diverse wrecks, and tied together, for temporary security,—upon the bosom of a raging deep, and which, but for the utmost care and diligence, might, at any moment, be rent in pieces.

But the struggles and trials, through which Rhode-Island passed, with her sister colonies, did but give additional strength to her own love of Liberty and Law; and some notice of them belongs as truly to the history of her great idea, as the account which we are giving of its most important developements. In these struggles, whether carried on at the Court of the Stuarts, in the camp of Cromwell, or here in these Western wilds, it might be shown that she still baffled her adversaries, and triumphed alike over their diplomacy abroad, and their menaces and violence at home. I shall confine my remarks to the latter, and name some few prominent facts. They will afford a melancholy interest, but without, I trust, awakening any unkind feelings between the Sisters, as they now are. It will serve to mark the distinctive character of our State, and to confirm her identity. This is an important object to a State of such small territorial extent, and of such a limited and fluctuating population.

Here, then, was Rhode-Island in the midst of three great colonies, Plymouth, Massachusetts, and Connecticut—all bitterly hostile to the heretic—all anxious to rid themselves of her presence, and all regarding her as their natural and legitimate prey. And they, accordingly, fell upon her like three wolves upon the same lamb; and had not God been her shepherd, they must have torn her in pieces. Plymouth claimed the island of Rhode-Island; Connecticut, the Narragansett country; and Massachusetts claimed Providence and Warwick. They would not have left the poor heretics a single rod of ground, on which to rest the soles of their feet, or to bury their dead. Connecticut, repeatedly, asserted her claim to the Narragansett country; appointed officers at Wickford and other places: and often resorted to violence for the enforcement of her laws. Plymouth

was ever a more quiet and tolerant colony than either Massachusetts or Connecticut. She, indeed, insisted on her claims to the island of Rhode-Island, with such earnestness, that Mrs. Hutchinson, a woman of remarkable intellectual endowments, and the kindest sympathies, apprehensive that she might again fall under the jurisdiction of Church and State, fled, with a number of her friends, to Long Island, where they were massacred by the Indians. Plymouth, however, never resorted to force. Her pretence to Shawomet she transferred, or yielded to Massachusetts, rather than attempt to enforce the claim herself. But Massachusetts rested not herself, and gave Rhode-Island no rest. Her claims to jurisdiction over Providence and Warwick, on various pretences, were unremitted. During the village quarrels in Providence, several of its citizens applied to Massachusetts for protection: and she induced them, by some writing of theirs, to pretend to put themselves and their lands under her jurisdiction; and, on this pretence, she actually assumed to exercise her authority, and to enforce her laws, here, in the town of Providence. Thus there were, here in the same municipality, two distinct code of laws, brought to operate on the same persons, and property; and this state of things was effected, according to Winthrop, with the *intent* of bringing Rhode-Island into subjection, either to Massachusetts or Plymouth. You may easily conceive the confusion into which things were thrown, by this atrocious interference in the concerns of this little community. Gorton, who was then at Providence, thought that it had a particular signification for him; and he, and a few of his associates, left Providence, and settled at Shawomet, afterwards called Warwick. There he purchased a tract of land of Meantinomy, the chief warrior sachem of the Narragansetts, and built and planted. But Massachusetts did not allow him to escape so. She assumed the claims of Plymouth, and procured from her an assignment or concession of her pretended jurisdiction over Shawomet. After this, two of Meantinomy's under-sachems, of that place, submitted themselves and lands to her jurisdiction; and then, three or four of the English inhabitants, who had made purchases of these sachems, imitating the example of a few at Providence, feigned to put themselves and property under her protection. Thus trebly fortified with pretences, Massachusetts entered the settlement, at Warwick, with an armed force of forty men, accompanied by many of her Indian subjects; seized Gorton, and his friends, and carried them prisoners to Boston. There they were tried for blasphemy, and for "enmity to all civil authority among the people of God;" and were sentenced to imprisonment in irons, during the pleasure of the Court—Gorton himself narrowly escaping sentence of death. This imprisonment was continued through the winter; and they were then discharged, on condition, that, if after fourteen days, they were found within Massachusetts, Providence, or Shawomet, (the place of their homes,) they should suffer death. These proceedings, far from inducing the people of Rhode-Island to renounce their idea of Liberty and Law, did but strengthen their attachment to it. But the government of the entire colony was soon called upon to defend its peculiar principles by direct action.

During the year 1656, a number of the people called Quakers (more properly Friends,) arrived in Boston, and began to preach and practice their doctrines. No experience had yet been sufficient to teach Massachusetts or her confederates the folly of interfering between God and con-

science; and she began to fine, imprison, banish, whip, and hang the Quakers. But these people could find, and did find, a place of refuge in Rhode-Island; whence they occasionally issued forth, as the Spirit promted, into the neighboring colonies, and startled them with revelations from above. Whereupon the Commissioners of the United Colonies of New England addressed a letter to the President of this place of refuge —the Plantations here—and urged him to send away such Quakers as were then in the colony, and to prohibit them from entering it. With this request, our government promptly refused to comply; alledging their principle of soul-liberty as the ground of their refusal. And they went even further—apprehensive that their adversaries might attempt, in England, where this sect was particularly obnoxious, to effect indirectly, what they could not directly accomplish here, they charged John Clarke, their agent at Westminister, to have an eye and ear open to their doings and sayings; and if occasion were, to plead the cause of Rhode-Island in such sort, as that they "might not be compelled to exercise any civil power over men's consciences, so long as human orders, in point of civility, were not corrupted and violated." Indeed, the love of their peculiar idea of government seems to have grown with the trials through which it passed, and strengthened with its growth. And what will prove that this love had become one and identical with the spirit of this people, and their peculiar idea dearer than life itself, are the facts to which I will now call your attention.

The first settlers at Providence and Warwick, were, at the commencement of their settlements, on the most friendly terms with their Indian neighbors. The Wampanoags, once a powerful people, though now considerably reduced, were on one side, and the Narragansetts, who, it is said, could number four or five thousand warriors, were on the other. A formidable array of savage strength this! and indeed, at that time, the Red Man may be said to have held all Rhode-Island's blood in the palm of his hand, the slightest agitation of which would have consigned it to the dust. Roger Williams, sensible of the perils of his position, early "made a league of friendly neighborhood with all the sachems round about." But this league with savages was necessarily very precarious. They were all alike jealous of the whites; and, if any one provoked a war, it would be, of necessity, an indiscriminate war of extermination—race against race—and Rhode-Island would be the earliest victim. Now the Indians were at war among themselves; and the United Colonies knew how to play off one hostile body against another for their own advantage; and they appear to have done so with little regard, to say the least, to the critical position of the heretic colony. Indeed, it so happens that its particular Indian friends were the particular objects of their unremitted hostility. Meantinomy and the Narragansetts, generally, were, (as has been said,) on the most friendly terms with Williams and Gorton, Providence and Warwick. They cherished and fostered those infant settlements, as savages best could; and it was against this chieftain and his people, that the United Colonies chose to excite Uncas and the Mohegans. Frequent strifes and, ultimately war and battle and slaughter were the consequences. Meantinomy was taken prisoner, and Uncas was advised by the United Colonies to put him to death. Acting on this advice, Uncas murdered his prisoner. The whole Narragansett people were, thereupon,

deeply agitated—hostilities were frequently threatened; nor did the memory of this atrocious deed die out of the Narragansett mind, ere the Wampanoags rose in arms, and the whole body of Indians raised the tomahawk against the whites, without discrimination. Now in 1643, previous to the death of Meantinomy, the four New England colonies, Plymouth, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New Haven, formed a confederation for their better security against Indian hostilities. This confederation was, indeed, a castle of safety to them, but not to Rhode-Island. She was obliged to stand out exposed to every peril. Between the death of Meantinomy, and the outbreak of Philip's war, again and again, did the fearful cloud of Indian hostility darken the land, and again and again, did Rhode-Island apply for admission into this confederation, and was refused. Refused? No; not absolutely. If she would renounce her idea of government, and come in under the Church and State combination, then, indeed, they would take her under their protection; but until she did, she must stand out exposed to all the horrors of Indian war. Rather than accept such conditions, she chose the exposure. She stood out ready to brave the terrors of Indian ferocity—the midnight conflagration, and the indiscriminate butcheries of the tomahawk and scalping knife. Did she not love her Idea? Was it not dearer to her than life? Did she not feel it to be one and identical with herself, and that to renounce it, would be to commit treason against the Most High, and to terminate her own existence?

By this, her unconquerable love of her own glorious principles, she proved herself worthy of the Charter of 1663. Than that Charter, no greater boon was ever conferred by mother country on colony, since time began. No grant ever more completely expressed the Idea of a People. It, at once, guarantied our ancestors' soul-liberty, and granted a law-making power, limited only by the desire of their Anglo-Saxon minds. It gave them the choice of every officer, from the Commander-in-Chief down to the humblest official. It gave to the State the power of peace and war. It made her a sovereignty under the protection, rather than the guardianship, of England's sovereign; so that the moment that protection was withdrawn, she stood independent and alone, competent to fight her own battles, under her own shield. I shall say nothing more of the powers conferred by this Charter; we have too recently put off, and hung on the castle walls, that Vulcanian panoply, still unscathed, glorious and brilliant with nearly two centuries' wear. We know what it was; God bless its memory!

There are those who are weak enough to think that they degrade the State, by calling this Charter the grant of a profligate king. The fools! As well might they think to degrade a man, by declaring that the garment which he wears was made by a profligate tailor. But those who are endowed with this high wisdom, have yet to learn something of the manner in which Divine Providence operates its results in the great humanity, and that even this Charter is not the work of mere man. They have yet to learn, that there exists, throughout the grand totality, one presiding and all-pervading Mind, which, ever as occasion requires, brings out one element of humanity in opposition to another—balances excess against excess, and makes the best and the worst, the highest and the lowest, of mortals, equally, the unconscious instruments of its great designs; and thus moves man steadily onward, to a higher and higher

sphere of duties and rights. Whence comes the tyrant's will, unless it be from himself? But whence come the instinct of self-preservation, and deathless hope and faith, and that feeling, which knows no master, for the heroic sufferer in virtue's cause? They are all from the Divine Author of humanity; and dwell alike in the beggar and the king.

When Charles the Second heard the tale of Rhode-Island's woes—of the wrongs inflicted upon her by her giant sisters—when he heard of the scantiness of her territory, of the smallness of her numbers—of the perils to which they had been exposed, and of those which they must still encounter, in these distant wilds, could he have been accounted subject to the common laws of humanity, had he refused her feebleness a single demand? Was not this Divine Power his master?—and did he not grant the Charter because he could not do otherwise than obey it? Yes—save as an instrument, neither Charles, nor Clarendon, nor Howard, nor other noble, gave that Charter. On the contrary, that very law of humanity which gave Rhode-Island's idea of government ere Rhode-Island was a name, and after passing it from generation to generation, gave it first to take form here in an infant people—that very law now clad in the panoply of the Charter, and bade it suddenly stand out in the midst of New England's colonies, like another Minerva flashed from the head of Jove.

Well might the surrounding colonies recoil from the splendid vision, and still look on in wonderment at its strange apparition. But be ye not too fearfully astonished, ye simple ones! There is no witchcraft here. It is but an ordinary prodigy of that "Wonder-working Providence" of which ye have spoken so much, and know so little. John Clarke, our agent at Westminister, has not been dealing with the wicked one—he has simply performed his duty as a part of the organization of the great humanity, and that, operating under the laws of its Divine Author, has accomplished this grand result.

Here, then, was Rhode-Island in the midst of them—after all, something more than the peer of her sisters. Her form has still the contour and softness of youth, and something more than a century of growth and discipline must roll away, ere the heart of the young sovereignty shall beat high in the maturity of its vigor, and her bone become hardened, and her muscles strong, to execute the purposes of her unconquerable will—and then—she shall march!—Yes, she shall MARCH!—and her banner shall stream daringly over Ocean's wave, and be rent in shreds on many a battle-field.

But there is some one who thinks, or says to himself; "This is extravagant language for Rhode-Island—a *little* State." My indulgent hearer, whoever you may be, do you know what that word *little* means, when thus applied to a social power—to an integral part of the grand social and moral organization of the race? Do you think that the greatness of a State is to be measured by the league or the mile? Are you really in the habit of estimating moral and intellectual greatness by the ton and the cord? Do you weigh ideas in a balance, or measure thoughts by the bushel? If you do, and your method be the true one, you must be decidedly right, and Rhode-Island is "a *little* State." But if the intellectual and moral be above the material and physical, and if that State be great, which actualizes a great central truth or idea—one congenial to the whole nature of man—one that must develope itself in a manner consistent with

the order of Divine Providence, the great course of events, and leave everlasting results in humanity—then Rhode-Island is not a *little* State, but one of such vast power as shall leave an ever-enduring impression on mankind. Give but the transcendent Mind—the great Idea, actualized—and whether it appear in an individual of the humblest physical conformation, or in the organization of a State of the smallest territorial extent, and the most limited population, it shall tend to raise all mankind up to its own standard, and to assimilate men and nations to itself. The principle of the hydrostatic balance has its reality in the mass of humanity, as well as in Ocean's flood; and give but the great fundamental Idea, brought out and embodied in the ever-enduring form of a State, and it shall act through that form, from generation to generation, on the elements beneath it, until it raise the enormous mass up to its own exalted level.

This, all history proves. The States which have produced the greatest effect on mankind, are not those which are of the greatest material dimensions; but, on the contrary, they are States which, though of small territorial extent, and often of very limited population, have actualized great fundamental truths or ideas. Take Athens, for example; with a ruling population of about twenty thousand, and with a territorial domain of about the extent of our own State, what a dominion did she hold, and holds she still, over the rising and risen civilizations of the earth! Barbarism took light from her lamp; infant Rome organized herself upon the basis of her laws; and surrounding nations were educated at her schools. Her ruling idea was given by the æsthetic element of the mind—strong in the love of the beautiful—and she carried this grand idea into all her social institutions—her religion, her philosophy, her science, her art, and into the athletic discipline of her youth. It reflected itself from the physiognomy and physical conformation of her people; from the statuary of her temples, and from her unnumbered monumental structures. She established an empire of her own, which shall out-last the pyramids—which shall be as enduring and as broad as human civilization. She still teaches by her example, and rules in the truth of her precepts.

Take ancient Judea—a State of small domain, and an outcast among the civilizations of old. The fundamental idea, or great truth, upon which her government was based, and which she carried into all her institutions and sacred literature, was the Idea of the Unity of the Divine. What an influence has this single idea, as derived from her, had upon all mankind! You may trace its influence, through history, from her fall to the present day. It has brought down with it, to all Christian, to all Mahometan nations, a knowledge of her institutions, and the influence of her laws; and, regarding Christianity merely in a secular point of view, as necessarily springing from her in the order of Divine Providence, what a power does she now exert throughout all Christendom! We can put our eye on nothing to which she has not given modification and form. She lives in our laws and institutions—the very current of thought now passing through our minds, and every hallowed sentiment by which we are now moved, may be traced back to the fundamental truth on which her legislator based that *little* State.

To say nothing of Tyre, or Carthage, let us take Rome—a single municipality, that was called, by the state of the world, to propagate her own Idea of Order and Law, among the barbarous nations of the

earth. Rome and the Roman Empire date their origin from the organization of the fugitives and outlaws, that were gathered within the narrow compass of the trench struck out by the hands of Romulus. Within this small space, the roots of an empire; such as the world had never before, and has never since seen, were planted; and thence they shot forth, assimilating to themselves every thing that they touched. Rome went forth in her legion, and did but repeat, on the barbarism of the earth, her own great Idea of Order and Law. She everywhere established her distinct municipal order—assimilated diverse rude nations to her own civilization, and thus enstamped an everlasting image of herself on the race.

I might name many other Republics, of very limited territorial extent and population, but which actualized ideas that transcended the ordinary standard of their age, which have performed a noble part in history, and left an abiding impression on mankind—I might name the small Italian Republics of modern times, and particularly of Venice—that Venice, who, with no boast of territorial extent, built her domain in the sea—drove down her piles in the Adriatic, and enthroned herself thereon as Ocean's queen. But I will not consume your time; enough has been said to show that we must not estimate the capacity and destiny of States by the extent of their territory, or the figures of their census—these are but contingent results, which may, or may not, justify claims to the honor and gratitude of mankind. But, on the contrary, would you truly determine the genius and destiny of a State, ascertain what part—what function in the grand organic order of humanity, is hers—what that principle is which has given her being, informed her with its own life, and actualized itself in her social and political organization; and, if that principle gives a contingent and secondary idea—one inferior to the general mind of the age in which it is called to act a part, such a State, however large its territory or population, cannot be great—it will ever be little, and will become less and less, until it die, and pass out of the system. The order of Divine Providence, the course of events, and the progress of the race, are against it. On the other hand, if that principle give a great fundamental idea or truth—one congenial to the immutable laws of the whole social humanity—one germinating from the inmost soul of man, and transcending the general mind of the age in which it is to take form—such a State cannot be little; however small its beginnings, its destiny is to act a high part in the grand course of events, and to become greater and greater in the worlds both of matter and mind, until, in the fullness of time, it has reflected its image entire, into the bosom of every civilized nation on earth.

Such was Rhode-Island's Idea, and such was Rhode-Island's destiny, (yet to be fulfilled,) the moment she took organization under the Charter of 1663.

Brevity requires that I should now pass from the history of the internal action of this idea, in order to take some notice of its external action, and of the exhibition it made of itself, in the grand theatre of the world. For this purpose, I shall inquire what part Rhode-Island acted in the sisterhood, at a memorable period in her and their history; and we can, thereby, the better determine whether there be, or be not, that, in her conduct, which will give us confidence in these large promises and exalted hopes.

We must suppose, then, that from the adoption of her charter, more

than a century of growth and discipline has rolled away, and brought us to the verge of the Revolution.

And where is Rhode-Island now?—that young sovereignty, so royally armed in her Charter, that she seemed like a goddess suddenly shot down among wondering mortals, from a celestial sphere. Where is she now? There she stands—one of the banded sisterhood—among the foremost, if not the very foremost of the Thirteen. But on whom does she flash the lightnings of that well-burnished helmet and shield, and level that glittering lance with the aim of her yet more glittering eye? It is on "the Mother Nation"—on Parent England! What cause has she for this hostile attitude, and most unfilial ire? Is not her Eden Isle still the resort of England's gentry? and what favor has been denied her? Or what decision, on the numerous controversies between her and her sister colonies, has indicated a single unkind feeling in Mother England's breast? Why, then, does she now band with those Sisters, and raise the hostile lance against England's protecting arm? Ah! she has come on a great mission; not sent by England, but by England's Lord; and she is here, in obedience thereto, to perform her part in a great movement of the progressive humanity. She felt her own Idea of Liberty and Law threatened in the wrongs inflicted on her Sisters; and, oblivious of the past, she stands here, banded with them, in vindication of her Idea. She has, moreover, assimilated them to herself. She has conquered by her example. They have adopted, or are adopting, her own just Idea of Government; and to defend it, has become the common duty of all.

But let us come out of allegory, into plain, matter-of-fact history, that spurns all embellishment. Rhode-Island, according to her high promise, should take a foremost part in this great movement, both in counsel and in action; and now, let us see whether she disappoints our expectations.

Do not understand that I mean to give even a general historical outline of her services and sufferings: I propose merely to name some prominent facts. But in order that these should be duly appreciated, it is necessary to state, that Rhode-Island, at the commencement of our struggle with Great Britain, did not contain a population of more than fifty thousand, of which, probably, one-fifth part was on the islands of the bay and coast; and these were in the occupation of the enemy, for nearly three years of the war;—that the State Treasury was already exhausted, and largely in debt, by reason of the expenses incurred during the French war;—that she was extensively engaged in commerce, to which her beautiful bay and harbors invited her enterprising people, at the same time that they exposed them to the depredations of a naval power. Now, under all these disadvantages, in what was it that Rhode-Island was foremost? Doubtless, each of the Thirteen may claim to be foremost in some things; but I speak only of those first steps, which manifested great daring, or were followed by great results. In what great movements, then, bearing this impress, was she first?*

She was the first to direct her officers to disregard the Stamp Act, and to assure them indemnity for doing so.

* See the Annals of Providence.

She was the first to recommend the permanent establishment of a Continental Congress, with a closer union among the colonies.

She was among the first to adopt the Articles of Confederation, and it may be added, the last to abandon them.

She was the first to brave royalty in arms.

Great Britain was not then here, as at Boston, with her land forces in the field, but with her marine—behind her wooden walls—on the flood; and before the casting of the three hundred and forty-two chests of tea—the East India Company's property—into the harbor of Boston, and before the battle of Lexington, men of Newport had sunk His Majesty's armed sloop Liberty; and men of Providence—after receiving, and returning *with effect*, the first shots fired in the Revolution—sent up the Gaspee in flames.

She was the first to enact and declare Independence.

In May, preceding the declaration of the Fourth of July by the Continental Congress, the General Assembly of this State repealed the act more effectually to secure allegiance to the King, and exacted an oath of allegiance to the State, and required that all judicial process should be in the name of the State, and no longer in His Majesty's name; whereby Rhode-Island, from that moment, became, and is at this day, the oldest sovereign and independent State in the Western World.

She was the first to establish a naval armament of her own; and here, on the waters of her own Narragansett, was discharged, from it, the first cannon fired in the Revolution, at any part of His Majesty's navy.

She was the first to recommend to Congress the establishment of a Continental Navy. The recommendation was favorably received, and measures were adopted to carry it into effect; and when that navy was constructed, she gave to it its first Commodore, or Commander-in-chief—Esek Hopkins, of North Providence. She furnished three captains, and seven lieutenants, they being more than three quarters of the commissioned officers for the four large ships, and, probably, the like proportion of officers for the four smaller craft. Under this command, the first Continental fleet—the germ of our present navy—consisting of eight sail, proceeded to New Providence, surprised that place, took the forts, made prisoners of the Governor and other distinguished persons, and seizing all the cannon and military stores found there, brought them safely into port, as a handsome contribution to the service of the American army. On our alliance with France, this armament gave place to the French navy.

But this was not the only kind of naval warfare adopted. The harbors of our State swarmed with armed vessels. Our merchants constructed privateers, or armed ships already on hand, and our sailors manned them, and in spite of the utmost vigilance of the British cruisers, they escaped to the Ocean, and were wonderfully successful. British property, to an immense amount, was brought into port, by which the wants of the people and army were supplied; thus producing a double effect—invigorating their country, and enervating her foe. A questionable mode of warfare this, it may be said; and so it may be said, that every mode of warfare is equally questionable. Nothing but the direst necessity can, in any case, excuse war; but our ancestors seem to have thought that, when once the war was commenced, the shortest way, to conquer peace, and secure their independence, was the best; and believing that the sen-

sorium of the enemy might be found in his purse, they struck at that, and not without tremendous effect. At any rate, in this business, it must be conceded, that Rhode-Island was foremost. In fact, this port, here at the head of the bay, so swarmed with this terrible species of insect war-craft, that the enemy called it "the Hornet's Nest."*

But whilst she was thus engaged in carrying war over the Ocean, she was not behind her Sisters in carrying it over the land. She raised two regiments at the commencement of the war—twelve hundred regular troops—she furnished her quota to the Continental Line, throughout the war. In addition to these, from the sixteenth of December, '76, to the sixteenth of March, '80, she kept three State regiments on foot, enlisted for the State or Continental service, as occasion might require. They were received as a part of the Continental establishment, and one of them, at least, was in the Continental service under Washington.

To characterize the Rhode-Island officers who served in that war, it will suffice to name a few of them.

There was General Greene, second only to Washington; perhaps his equal in the field. There was Hitchcock and Varnum, distinguished members of the bar, who did honor to the profession of arms. Hitchcock commanded a brigade, consisting of five regiments—two from Massachusetts, and three from Rhode Island—at the battles of Trenton and Princeton; and "for his signal gallantry received the special thanks of Washington, in front of the college at Princeton, and which he was requested to present to the brigade he had so ably commanded."† Varnum commanded a division of Washington's army on the Delaware; which included within it, the garrisons of Fort Mifflin, and Fort Mercer or Red-Bank. There were, also, Col. Christopher Greene, Col. Jeremiah Olney, Col. Lippett—I merely give their names—Major Thayer, the true hero of Fort Mifflin; Talbut, that amphibious Major, sometimes on the deep in some small craft, boarding His Majesty's galley, (the Pigot,)—sometimes on land, driving at once into camp, three or four British soldiers, whom he, alone, had captured—many were his daring adventures and hair-breadth escapes—General Barton, the captor of Prescot, and Capt. Olney, the foremost in storming the first battery taken at Yorktown. Many others might be named; but what a host of recollections rise in the mind, on the bare mention of these!

As to the services of our troops in the Continental line, it is sufficient to say that they were engaged in every great battle fought under Washington during the war; and there are instances in which they sustained the whole shock of the enemy; as at Springfield, and at Red-Bank, where twelve hundred Hessians were repulsed with great slaughter, by the five hundred Rhode-Island men there, under the command of Col. Greene. These, together with the State regiments, were with Sullivan in his expedition against the enemy at Newport, and were, it is believed, the rear guard of the retreating army. The battle on Quaker Hill has never been appropriately noticed in history. "It was the best fought action during

* For this fact, I am indebted to the venerable Wm. Wilkinson.

† See the letter of Mr. J. Howland, the venerable President of the Rhode-Island Historical Society, as quoted by Mr. Updike, in his "Memoirs of the Rhode-Island Bar," p. 148.

the Revolutionary War."* I use the language of Lafayette. There it was, that this rear guard checked the pursuing forces of Britain, and sustained an orderly retreat; there it was, that our black regiment, with their cocked hats, and black plumes tipped with white, moving with charged bayonets as a single man, twice or thrice rushed on the banded force of British and Hessians, and as often drove them from the ground.† The estimation in which the Rhode-Island regiments were held, both by the Commander-in-chief, and the Continental Army, may be shown by a short conversation between Washington and Col. Olney. There was some disturbance in the Rhode-Island line, and Washington, riding up to Olney's quarters, said, in a state of excitement not usual for him, "Col. Olney! what means this continued disturbance among the Rhode-Island troops?—*they give me more trouble than all the rest of the army.*" "I am sorry for it," said Olney, composedly. "But, General, that is just what the enemy say of them." A smile lit up the face of Washington, and the cloud passed from his brow. The freedom of this reply could have been warranted by nothing, but the known estimation in which the Rhode-Island troops were held, both by Washington and his army.

For nearly three years, during the time that Rhode-Island was making these efforts, the territory occupied by one-fifth part of her inhabitants, was, as I have said, in possession of the enemy, and one-half of the remaining portion of her people may be said to have slept within range of his naval cannon. The shores were guarded; artillery companies were stationed in every town bordering on the bay; the militia were constantly either under arms to repel assaults, or ready at a moment's warning, for that purpose; and in Sullivan's expedition, they were called out in mass. Such were the trials through which she passed, and such the efforts which she made, that on the return of peace, both State and people were utterly bankrupt. All the property within the State, both real and personal, would not have paid the debts of either. The subsequent laws, making paper money a tender, were, in fact, bankrupt acts. Massachusetts, by not adopting this course, forced the oppressed debtors into a resistance of the execution of her laws, and finally into rebellion and civil war. I say not which was the better course. It was, in fact, a choice between great and unavoidable evils; but the course of each State was perfectly characteristic. Rhode-Island dissolved the contract, and saved the debtor; Massachusetts saved the contract, and ruined the debtor. In Rhode-Island, Mercy triumphed over Justice; in Massachusetts, Justice triumphed over Mercy.

Such was the conduct of Rhode-Island, that young sovereignty, when called upon to act out of herself, and upon the world around her. And has she fallen, in anything, short of the high promise given by her fundamental Idea? Have our expectations been in any degree disappointed? Is she not, thus far, first among the foremost, in the great cause of Liberty and Law? In this struggle, she has acted under the liberty element of her Idea, and it has triumphed over illegal force.

But she is now called to another trial, in which the Law element, by force of circumstances, is destined to predominate. She is called to adopt a new constitution, prepared by the Sisterhood for themselves and her; and

* Annals of Providence, p. 256.

† Tradition.

she shrinks from it, as repugnant to her Idea of Government. She had been the first to propose the permanent establishment of a Continental Congress. She had been among the first to adopt the Articles of Confederation under which it was held, and she was now to be the last to abandon them. She had ever felt and acted as a sovereignty, even under England; and every freeman in the State felt her sovereignty and glory to be his own. His own individuality—his own conscious being was identified with her Idea, and he lived, moved, and breathed, as if he were one and identical with her, or she one and identical with him. Under the old confederation, this sovereignty would have been continued, and with it, the same free individuality—the same glorious conceptions of Liberty and Law that had come down from of old. But under the new Constitution —"through what new scenes and changes must she pass—through what variety of untried being," under constraint and limitation to which she had hitherto been a stranger—exposed, perchance, to the annoyance of a new brood of States, or States, at least, that shared not in her sympathies, and which might become hostile for imputed political, if not religious heresies —she paused—she hesitated.—If her Sisters, with something of their Church and State Ideas still clinging to them, and with their royal Governors just cast off—could put on this straight jacket—why let them do it —it might be natural enough for them—but she would hold to the old Confederation whilst she could—she could use her arms and her hands under that; but under this, they would be tied down; and she must pass her helmet and shield and lance into other hands, and trust them for the defense of her own glorious Idea—she determined to cling to the confederation—and who can blame her? I do not—and she did cling to it, until she stood alone, and was obliged to abandon it.

If Rhode-Island lost something of the freedom of her sovereignty, by the adoption of the Constitution of the United States, it must be admitted that she gained much, by the new position into which she was brought with her Sister States. She, in fact, acquired a new stand-point, and vantage ground, from which the influence of her Idea of Government, and of her enterprising and inventive genius has been transmitted, and is continually passing, into every portion of the Union. The Constitution of the United States, itself, had adopted her own original Idea—indeed, without it, as I have said, it could not have been established; and whatever remnant there was of old Church and State Ideas, has, under its influence, long since passed away. In the Constitution and Government of the Union, her own conceptions of Liberty and Law, have been conspicuously exemplified to the nations of the earth; and have produced, and are still producing, on them their legitimate and necessary effects.

From this new vantage ground, she has made her enterprising and original genius more sensibly felt by all. Having cast aside her shield and her lance, Minerva-like, she turned to the spindle and the loom. Without abandoning Agriculture or Commerce, she gave her attention to the Manufacturing Arts. The first cotton, spun by water, in the United States, was spun in North Providence. The first calico printed in America, was printed in East Greenwich. It was from these beginnings that the cotton manufacturing business of this country sprung, and soon came to give a most important direction to the legislation and policy of the Union. It was in 1816, that the manufacturing interest, chiefly of

this State, presented to Congress the great question of protection to American industry, in the most effective form. And from that time to the present, it has been a question upon which the policy of the Government has turned, and, in reference to which, administrations have been established and displaced, as this or that party prevailed.

But she has given occasion to a question more important still—a question touching her own original conception of regulated liberty—a question, however, which she settled for herself, by direct legislative enactment, and almost by judicial decision, nearly two centuries ago; but which now comes back upon her, by reason of the new relations and immature influences into which she is brought. I allude to that question which has grown out of events too recent for a particular discussion here, and at this time, but which I mention, because it forms a necessary part of the History of her Idea of Government. It is a question, which, when raised under the Constitution of the United States, it was well should be first raised and decided here, in a State which has been so long accustomed to preserve a due equipoise between Liberty and Law; and be, then, presented to those States, who are yet vernal in the enjoyment of that Liberty which has been so long her own. Upon their ultimate decision of this great question, may turn the destinies of this Nation. Yet if Rhode-Island continue true to her own just conceptions of government, we need not despair of the final re-organization, even of the elements of anarchy and misrule. By force of her own example, shall she restore them to order. The future is big with fates, in which she may be called to enact a higher part than any that has yet been hers. Let her gird herself for the coming crisis, whatever it may be. Let her recollect her glorious Past, and stand firm in her own transcendent Idea, and she shall, by that simple act, bring the social elements around her, even out of anarchy, into Order and Law.

We have thus reviewed the history of Rhode-Island's Idea of Government—of its internal development, and of its external action; and I now ask you, fellow-citizens, all, whether there be not that in its history, which is well worthy of our admiration; and that in it, which is still big with destinies glorious and honorable? Shall the records which give this history still lie unknown and neglected in the cabinet of this Society, *for the want of funds* for their publication? Will you leave one respected citizen to stand alone in generous contribution to this great cause?—I ask ye, men and women of Rhode-Island!—for all may share in the noble effort to rescue the history of an honored ancestry from oblivion—I ask ye, will you allow the world longer to remain in ignorance of their names, their virtues, their deeds, their labors, and their sufferings in the great cause of regulated liberty? Aye, what is tenfold worse, will you suffer your children to imbibe their knowledge of their forefathers, from the libelous accounts of them given by the Hubbards, the Mortons, the Mathers, and their copyists? Will you allow their minds, in the germ of existence, to become contaminated with such exaggerations, and perversions of truth, and inspired with contempt for their progenitors, and for that State to which their forefathers' just conceptions of government gave birth? Citizens!—be ye native or adopted, I invite ye to come out from all minor associations for the *coercive* development of minor ideas, and adopt the one great idea of your State, which gives center to them all, and, by hastening it

onward to its natural developments, you shall realize your fondest hopes. Let us form ourselves into one great association for the accomplishment of this end. Let the grand plan be, at once, struck out by a legislative enactment, making immediate, and providing for future appropriations; let the present generation begin this work, and let succeeding ones, through all time, go on to fill up and perfect it. Let us begin, and let our posterity proceed, to construct a monumental history that shall, on every hill, and in every vale—consecrated by tradition to some memorable event, or to the memory of the worthy dead—reveal to our own eyes, to the eyes of our children, and to the admiration of the stranger, something of Rhode-Island's glorious Past. Let us forthwith begin, and let posterity go on, to publish a documentary history of the State—a history that needs but to be revealed, and truly known, in order to be honored and respected by every human being capable of appreciating heroic worth. Let a history be provided for your schools, that shall teach childhood to love our institutions, and reverence the memory of its ancestry; and let myth and legend conspire with history, truly to illustrate the character and genius of ages gone by, and make Rhode-Island, all one classic ground. Let a literary and scientific periodical be established, that shall breathe the true Rhode-Island spirit—defend her institutions, her character, the memory of her honored dead, from defamation, be it of the past or present time—and thus invite and concentrate the efforts of Rhode-Island talent and genius, wherever they may be found. Let us encourage and patronize our literary institutions of all kinds, from the common school, to the college—they are all equally necessary to make the Rhode-Island Mind what it must be, before it can fulfill its high destinies. Let this, or other more hopeful plan, be forthwith projected by legislative enactment; and be held up to the public mind, for present and future execution, and we shall realize by anticipation, even in the present age, many of the effects of its final accomplishment. It will fix in the common mind of the State, an idea of its own perpetuity, and incite it to one continuous effort to realize its loftiest hopes. If Rhode-Island can not live over great space, she can live over much time—past, present, and to come—and it is the peculiar duty of statesmen to keep this idea of her perpetuity constantly in the mind of all.

Legislators of Rhode-Island!*

The State which you represent, is not an institution for a day, but one for all time. Generation after generation passes away, but the State endures. The same organic people still remains; the places of those who pass off are filled by those who come; and the same sovereignty still lives on and on, without end. Every particle of the human body is said to pass off out of the system, once in seven years; yet the same organic form still continues here to act its part—to be rewarded for its good, and punished for its evil deeds. It is just so with that body which constitutes the State. The organized people continues ever the same. The individuals which compose it, are its ever-coming and ever-fleeting par-

* The members of the General Assembly, then in session at Providence, were invited to attend at the delivery of this discourse; and most of them, it is believed, were present.

ticles, animated within it for a time, and then passing off to be seen no more: but unlike our own frail structures, it is qualified to endure through all time, and, therefore, in all that is done, this idea of its perpetuity should be ever kept before it. A great object is accomplished, when once a people is fully impressed with this idea; it almost secures the immortality of which you thus oblige it constantly to think. One great curse of all popular institutions has ever been, a resort to paltry, temporary expedients—to legislation that looks only to the day, or the petty requirements of the present. But once impress the people with the idea of its own perpetuity, and induce it to act thereon, and you change its character—you humanize it—you make it a being "of large discourse. that looks before and after." Once ingraft this idea upon the minds of the people of this State, and they will live in it—they will love it. They have now a boundless future before them, but "shadows, clouds, and darkness rest upon it." Vague and indefinite hopes they indeed cherish, but they can not anticipate what is to be realized. Strike out, then, the grand plan for the future—give some distinctness to the object of the State's high aim—to the elevated stand, in distant ages, to which she aspires—and, even now, they shall live in that future, just as they already live in the past. They will enjoy it by anticipation, and cheerfully urge the State on to that high destiny, which the God of Man and Nature designed should be hers.

NOTE.

I can not refrain from repeating the acknowledgment of my obligations to the author of the "Annals of Providence," for many valuable facts and suggestions, personally communicated, of which I have availed myself in the preparation of this discourse. Nor can I forget my obligations to the venerable Wm. Wilkinson, whose memory, at his present very advanced age, of the events of the Revolution, seems to be as perfect as if they were the occurrences of yesterday.

J. D

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CAUSES OF THE NEGLECT OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN RHODE-ISLAND.

[Having called the attention of our readers to the absence in Judge Durfee's review of the civil polity of Rhode Island, of the element of public schools, we very readily give place to the following article, which appeared originally in the Rhode Island Temperance Pledge. The signature and the style would indicate its author to be an associate of Judge Durfee on the bench of the Supreme Court.]

"Too much honor cannot be given to the first settlers of New England generally, for their early attention to the cause of public education. The governments of Plymouth, in Massachusetts, and Hartford and New Haven, very soon after their establishment, assumed the education of children as one of the legitimate objects of their care. Every village was obliged to maintain its school, and the whole mass, by voluntary offerings and contributions, aided in the endowment of the higher literary institutions. All these were considered as auxiliaries to the Church. The immediate oversight and general charge of them, was in the hands of the clergy. Their talents and acquirements entitled them to the preference, and the influence which they exerted over every part of the community, insured it to them.

The principal object of the settlers of these colonies, was to enjoy a purer form of worship than the laws of their land tolerated. They, doubtless, thought they had attained it. They endeavored to sustain its purity by the power of the civil magistrate. Far from relying on influence and authority which lives spent in accordance with their professions, would exercise on

those who differed from them, they pursued the easier beaten track, and reformed the schismatic by threats, or cut him off with the sword of the magistrate. Pursuing this mode of preserving purity in religion by legal enactment and corporeal punishment, every step that the child took in its learning was made to have a tendency to secure uniformity in doctrine and practice. The community required this, and the guardians of the institutions were quite willing to enforce it. Science, which should ever be the handmaid of religion, in these establishments was degraded to the bond-slave of sectarianism. The parish Church and the district school, instead of being allies, were united in unholy wedlock. The latter was made and was designed to be merely the nursery of the other. The great design of the higher literary institutions was to fit men for the ministry. All learning which would not subserve this purpose was lightly esteemed.

It is not intended by these remarks to censure the men, who, for this object, and in this manner, favored public education.—With their views of religion, with their opinions of the purity of the Church establishment, they could not consistently have acted differently. Believing that the safety, nay, the very existence of their Commonwealth, depended upon an exact uniformity in religious belief, as good patriots, they could not have done less than they did. And believing that their peculiar doctrines and ceremonies were identified with those received in the primitive Church, and were not merely the only true ones, but the only safe ones for mankind to adopt, as Christians they were bound to urge the adoption of them by all men. That they erred in the means pursued, it is presumed, will not at this day be denied, and it is from this error, that it is intended to find palliation for the neglect of education in Rhode-Island.

The first settlers of this State had felt, in their estates and persons, the evils resulting to conscientious men from laws requiring uniformity in religious opinions. Preferring to obey God rather than man, to sacrifice present comfort, for a good conscience, they had removed beyond the jurisdiction of the other colonies. Smarting under the penal laws of these governments, they sought to establish one which should punish, not for opinions merely, but for those acts, which disturb the public peace, without any regard to the origin of those acts. Strict Independents in their views of Church government, they aimed to avoid every approach towards either Episcopacy or Presbyterianism. Most of them, soon after the settlement, if not at the very first, believed that a Christian Church consisted of adult profess-

ors, wherever residing; such as from the convictions of truth and their own expressed consent, united themselves together They repudiated the idea of a parish Church, extending to certain territorial limits, and embracing all persons residing within them. They had seen the district school, from an ally of true religion, made the bond slave of the Parish Church; and denying the latter, by a course equally erroneous with that pursued by the neighboring governments, they neglected to foster and encourage the former. They had been taught to believe, or at least, induced to fear, that the one was dependent on the other. The fruit being evil, they condemned the tree, without stopping to ascertain, what, in reality was the fact, that the fruit was corrupted after it fell from the tree.

With regard to the higher institutions of learning, they had been made equally obnoxious to them. They regarded them as fountains of error, as schools where only a false philosophy was taught. They had heard them mostly extolled as furnishing the means of education, necessary for the minister of the Gospel. Both in Old England and in New, they had experienced no gentle treatment, from the hands of an educated priesthood. It was but a short step for men exasperated as they were, to believe that that which had been held out as useful, was in itself absolutely necessary, to constitute a minister, and that human learning made the kind of ministers with which they had to deal. They overlooked the distinction between the right use and the abuse of learning, and for its abuse, neglected its cultivation. It surely may be permitted their descendants to palliate their errors, to set forth the reasons which must have influenced them. In avoiding one extreme they had felt to be injurious, they have left their posterity great cause to lament that they fell into the other.

The prejudice against learning, was too deeply seated to be easily or speedily removed. It was in fact rather increased by the influx of the early Quakers into the colony. This was their city of refuge. Many of their early testimonies were directed against the priesthood of the day, and many severe things were said and written by them on this subject, with truth. This, no doubt, revived the slumbering prejudices of the first settlers, and kept alive their resentment against a learned clergy. The persecuting spirit which they possessed, was, by a kind of false reasoning, attributed to their learning. Early Quakers also decried human learning as tending to call off the mind from what should be the highest object of its attention and regard. More recently

this sect has adopted a more correct view of the matter; distinguishing between the use and the abuse of learning.

The early Baptists promulgated the same erroneous opinions, but they retraced their steps at an earlier period. These two sects made up a large majority of the Colony, and to their united influence must be mainly attributed the want of an establishment of Public Schools by law.

Another peculiarity in the situation of Rhode Island should also be borne in mind. Under the first Charter, the Colony was little more than a confederation of independent States. The second Charter united them more firmly, but still the early independence of the several towns is not entirely lost sight of. Under neither of these Charters, did the colonial government acquire title to any land. What was vested before the grant of any Charter, in the separate settlements embraced in the Confederation. They resembled the corporations and companies of the present day, associated for pecuniary purposes; present personal safety and perhaps ultimate pecuniary gain, being their chief objects. From such associations it would be in vain to look for much encouragement to learning. The colony by purchase of the natives, did, at one time possess some tracts of land in the Narragansett country. They would by no means compare with those vast tracts from the sale of which other States have, in a great measure, raised their School funds. But even these tracts they were compelled to dispose of not long after the purchase, to such individuals as would defend their right to the jurisdiction over them, against the pretensions of neighboring Colonies. It was a kind of forced sale, yielding little to the public treasury. So far from receiving from this, or any other source, the means of supporting public schools, almost all the expenses of government from its establishment, have been raised by dry taxation on the inhabitants. How this circumstance would have affected the zeal of her neighbors in the cause of education, can only be surmised.

Again, the Colony of Rhode-Island had a great and important duty to discharge. To them, seems to have been intrusted by Heaven, the cause of God. They were the standard bearer in the glorious cause of religious liberty. They were called to be a distinct and separate people. With this duty upon them, they could not coalesce with the neighboring colonies. They could not rely on them for aid and assistance. Their seal and their motto, is descriptive of their situation. In whom but in God, could they hope? Standing thus alone and for such a high pur-

pose, they had greater difficulties to overcome than the other Colonies, and they had to meet every difficulty and expense, single handed. The consequence was, that the expenditures of the Colony, drawn, as we have before stated, from dry taxation, far exceeded those of any other colony, in proportion to extent and population. The means of supporting schools were thus diminished, and the great and main object of their settlement engrossed their attention. To maintain and secure that, required constant and unremitting attention.

These, it is suggested, are some of the causes why the soil of Rhode-Island, has never seemed peculiarly favorable to schools and institutions of learning. In view of them, we should not deny, but glory in the fact. If the spirit of learning has not so much prevailed, the spirit of Christianity has more—if we have not been the most educated, we have been the most free.

S.

ORIGIN AND REPEAL OF THE SCHOOL ACT OF 1800.

The following account of the origination and repeal of the first school act of this State, is taken from a communication by John Howland, Esq., to the *Providence Daily Journal* of June 10, 1842.

The subject of public schools was agitated and discussed among the members of the Providence Association of Mechanics and Manufacturers in the year 1798; and at their quarterly meeting on the second Monday in January, 1799, it was determined to present a memorial to the General Assembly, requesting them to pass an act to make the legal provisions for the establishment of public schools sufficient to educate *all the children in the several towns throughout the State.* Here it will be necessary to mention, that the members of the Association, or any other persons, never doubted the power or right of any town to establish public schools and to defray the expenses by a town tax; but the purpose of addressing the Legislature was to call them to a sense of their duty in favoring the cause of instruction, either by assessing some penalty, or granting some special privilege to those towns that should adopt the system. So far as the town of Providence was concerned, we should have established public schools here, if the General Assembly had declined acting on the subject. We wanted no law of the State to grant us any power. We knew we already possessed sufficient, and when the subject had been spread before the community in the public paper, by several members of the society, and others who were induced to write in its favor, our whole population, with but few exceptions, were in favor of the measure. And, in this connection, all due credit ought to be given to most of those gentlemen who possessed the largest property, and who would be held to contribute most to the expense, for their exertions in its favor. Mr. John Brown and Mr. John Innes Clarke, who paid the largest taxes, were zealous in the cause.

The memorial and petition of the Association was favorably received, and the Attorney General (Burrill) was appointed to present a bill at the next session. The bill was drawn in Mr. Burrill's office, in this city, where two members of the society, by invitation of Mr. Burrill, were present in consultation. Mr. George Burrill was the scribe. The bill was presented at the next session, and referred

to the several towns for them to instruct their Representatives respecting its passing into a law. Most of the towns paid no attention to it by way of instructions; other towns instructed their members to advocate its passage. Mr. Mowry, an able Representative from Smithfield, strongly advocated its adoption in a well written speech, which was published in the Gazette. The bill passed in the lower House, but was laid over in the Senate. The election was approaching in which Lieut. Gov. Potter and two other members of the Senate lost their elections. The new Lieut. Governor and two Senators, in favor of the bill, took their places. At the next session holden in Providence, Mr. Joel Metcalf and the subscriber went to the Senate Chamber to request the school bill to be called up. Mr. John I. Clarke, the Senator from Providence, arose from his seat and came to us. We stated to him the purpose of our coming, and he assured us that he would call up the bill at the commencement of the afternoon session. When the afternoon session had been some little time convened, Mr Metcalf and myself entered the Senate room, and Mr. Clarke immediately came to us and said the school bill had just passed. "Was there any opposition?" "No. Not a word said." We retired, to tell the pleasing result. After the act had been in force nearly a year and a half, and when Smithfield, North Providence, West Greenwich, and other towns were taking the proper measures in accordance with it, the act was suddenly, and without time for debate, repealed. The repeal of the act of the State had no effect on the school system in Providence. That existed, and has received the increasing support and patronage of our citizens to the present time.

CONDITION OF EDUCATION IN RHODE-ISLAND IN 1828.

The following summary of the state of Education in Rhode-Island in 1828, is taken from the *Rhode-Island American and Gazette* of January 16, 1828.

"Schools are now kept up in our country towns at a very considerable expense to the people; an expense much greater than would be required of them should they raise an equal amount with the sum they would be entitled to receive from the treasury, under the proposed act for establishing free schools. To shew this, we refer to the following statement, gathered from the representatives of the towns named, the general correctness of which may be relied on, though the statement is not as full as could be wished. In 1821, a committee appointed on the state of education, collected from most of the towns the exact account of the number of school-houses, schools, &c., in each town. Their report was never made to the legislature, and the information is not to be found on file. In order to supply this defect, as far as possible, we have applied to the several representatives, and now give the result, with the exception of Providence, which is abundantly provided with schools.

Newport.—One free school, with about 200 scholars: 42 private schools, having about 1100 scholars. These schools are supported winter and summer. Inhabitants, 7,319.

West Greenwich.—Two school-houses, built by subscription. Eleven schools are regularly kept about three months in the winter; three of which are continued nearly the year round. Inhabitants, 1927.

Richmond.—Two school houses, in which schools are kept a part of each season—also a well attended Sunday school. Inhabitants, 1423.

Hopkinton.—Nine school houses, in three of which—in the vicinity of factories—schools are kept through the year—the others in the winter. Inhab. 1821.

North Kingstown.—The Elam Academy, and one private school in Wickford.—There is but one school house in the town, near Wm. Reynold's factory—in all six schools, three of which are kept winter and summer. Inhab. 3,007.

Exeter.—Three school houses in which winter schools are kept—no other schools in the town. Inhab. 2,581.

East Greenwich.—Academy, and one private school house in the village, kept year round: four in other parts of the town—in all, six school houses. Seven

schools are kept in the winter, and three or four women's schools in the summer. Inhab. 1,519.

Johnston.—Five school houses: six or seven schools are kept in the winter, and two or three in the summer. Inhab. 1,542.

Charlestown.—One school house: from five to seven schools in the winter, and three in the summer. Inhab. 1,160.

Coventry.—Ten school houses: fourteen schools in winter, and seven in summer. Inhab. 3,139.

Portsmouth.—Four school houses, in which schools are kept pretty regularly in winter, and in one or two in summer. Inhab. 1,645.

Foster.—Fifteen school houses—all open in the winter season, and most of them in summer. Inhab. 2,000.

North Providence.—Seven school houses—an academy, and four other schools in Pawtucket, two men's and three women's, kept most of the year—in all, eleven schools in the town, most of them kept open but a part of the year. Inhab. 2,420.

Cranston—Is divided into eleven districts, and has eleven school houses, though schools are not regularly kept in all. There are five other schools—in all, sixteen schools, but a small part kept through the year. Inhab. 2,274.

Middletown—Five school houses, in which are schools regularly in winter, and irregularly in summer. Inhab. 949.

Warwick.—Seven school houses, in which are kept men's schools, besides two or three others: six women's schools in winter and summer—in all, sixteen schools. Inhab. 3,643.

Smithfield—Has thirteen school houses. Two of these are well conducted academies, kept the year round, at Woonsocket and Slatersville, two flourishing manufacturing villages. There is also a private school at Woonsocket. Two school houses on the east road, four on the Worcester road—one Sayles' hill—one in Angell's neighborhood—one, Louisquisset turnpike, of brick, and one near R. Mowry. Besides schools regularly kept in these places, there are five others—in all nineteen schools. Inhab. 4,678.

Cumberland—Is divided into districts, and has thirteen school houses—schools regularly kept and well attended in all. Inhab. 2,653.

Burrillville.—Eleven school houses—schools in all in the winter, averaging forty scholars each—one kept the year round. There are four or five private schools in summer. Inhab. 2,164.

Scituate.—Five school houses. There are probably some sother chools in the town; but a correct statement could not be obtained. Inhab. 2,834.

Glocester.—Eleven school houses, and about fifteen schools in the town in winter. Inhab. 2,504.

Jamestown—Three school houses, schools kept in but two in winter. Inhab. 448.

Barrington.—Three school houses—schools kept winter and summer. Inhab. 634.

Little Compton.—Eight school houses open in winter, and most all in summer. Inhab. 1,580.

Westerly.—Six school houses open the year round, limited to thirty scholars each. There are two academies, one at Pawcatuck, a manufacturing village, kept the year round—in all, eight schools. Inhab. 1,972.

Bristol.—Four school houses, one of which is an academy, with two schools in it. There are five men's schools in winter, and seven women's schools through the year. The town appropriates about $350 annually for support of schools, arising from the rent of market, licences, and some land given for that purpose. Inhab. 3,197.

Warren.—One academy and four school houses—three built by the town, and one by an individual. There are five men's schools in winter, (including the academy,) and an average of twelve female schools through the year, in addition to the above—sometimes as many as twenty female schools. Inhab. 1,806.

New Shoreham.—One school house. There are four schools, averaging thirty scholars each, kept four months in winter, and about six months in summer. Inhab. 955.

South Kingstown.—One academy, in which a school is kept the year round, and

seven school houses, in which schools are kept winter and summer. There a number of schools kept irregularly in private houses. Inhab. 3,723

Tiverton.—Ten school houses, in which schools are kept pretty regularly. There are a few other small schools. Inhab. 2,875.

Providence.—There are eight public schools in this town, at which about nine hundred children are taught. Six or seven academies, where the higher branches are taught, including the Friends' Seminary, and probably eighty or ninety private schools. In 1821 a regular return was made of all the schools in town. Exclusive of the public schools, there were then ten men's schools, and forty-four kept by females. Since then this number has greatly increased. The expense of the public schools paid by tax on the inhabitants, is not much short of $5,000. The amount paid by parents for private tuition is doubtless double that sum, making at the lowest estimate $15,000, annually paid for the tuition of the children of Providence. It is obvious therefore, that in a pecuniary point of view, Providence will gain nothing by the system of free schools becoming general, as she would pay much more into the treasury, toward the support of schools in other towns, than she would be entitled to draw out, besides making up the deficiency in the support of her own schools Inhabitants in 1820, 11,767. Since increased to upwards of 17,000.

Population of the counties in 1820, Providence 35,736 Newport 15,771. Washington 15,687. Kent 10,228. Bristol 5,637.

Supposed number of children necessary to be educated, viz, Providence county 15,315. Newport 6,527. Washington 7,093. Kent 4,547. Bristol 2,361. In the State 35,843 children.

From an examination of the above statement, it will be seen that there is a much larger number of school houses erected than has been generally supposed, and but few additional ones will be required. It is obvious too, that the expense to all the towns of keeping up the schools they now maintain, is a much greater sum than they will be required to assess in order to entitle them to their proportion of any money that may be appropriated out of the Treasury; thus giving them, at a less expense than the inhabitants of those towns now voluntarily incur nearly double the advantages of education they are now receiving.

The total number of school houses erected in all the towns in the State, (excluding Providence and Newport) are 181, and 10 academies. The number of winter schools, averaging at least three months in a year, maintained by the inhabitants of those towns, is 262. A winter school for three months, must cost at least $100, which gives $26,200, the sum now annally paid by the inhabitants of the towns above alluded to, for the education of their children, besides the expenses of keeping female schools in summer. If the blank in the bill now before the General Assembly is filled with $10,000, the proportion which those towns will receive from that sum will so much diminish their expenses of education; or if they add it to what they now pay within themselves, will greatly extend the means of instruction among their children, without one cent additional burden, the only effect being to equalize the payment of the sums now voluntarily raised in the several towns.

Taking the estimate for the criterion of apportionment, the several towns would be entitled to receive the following sums out of an annual allowance from the Treasruy of $10,000, viz.; Newport, 609,40. Portsmouth 245,08. New Shoreham, 37,32. Jamestown 107,22. Middletown 137,86. Tiverton 175,36. Little Compton 153,18. Providence 2,910 54. Smithfield 551,46. Scituate 291,04. Glocester 208,32. Cumberland 266,48. Cranston 306,38. Johnston 196,08. North Providence 382,96. Foster 193. Burrillville 199,80. Westerly 143,98. North Kingstown, 266,54. South Kingstown 336,74. Charlestown 107,22. Exeter 183,86. Richmond 91,90. Hopkinton 143,98. Bristol 459,49. Warren 189,94. Barrington 58,60. Warwick 398,28. East Greenwich 140,74. West Greenwich 190,74. Coventry 175,22.

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DEBATE ON THE SCHOOL ACT OF 1828.

We have recently met with a pamphlet edition of the "*Debate on the Bill establishing Free Schools at the January Session of the Rhode Island Legislature, A. D.* 1828," *reported for the Rhode-Island American, by B. F. Hallett.* We propose to make a few extracts from this interesting debate, for the purpose of exhibiting the views of some of the public men of Rhode-Island on the subject of Free Schools twenty years ago, and preserving the history of the school system of this State. The subject was brought before the Assembly at the October Session, in 1827, by memorials from inhabitants of Smithfield, Cumberland, Johnston, East Greenwich, and other towns. The following Memorial was signed by many inhabitants of the town of East Greenwich.

To the General Assembly of the State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantation, the undersiged, inhabitants of said State, respectfully represent

That although the measures taken by individuals for the support of common rchools are evidence of an increasing conviction of the benefits of early education, and deserve much praise, your Memorialists are persuaded, that the effort of public spirited men, in the different towns, would be greatly aided by the sanction of your Honorable Body, by a legislative system, extended to all parts of the State, and by occasional grants from the State Treasury, of such pecuniary encouragements as shall be consistent with prudence and expediency.

The readiness with which people associate for the purpose of building schoolhouses and maintaining teachers, would seem to justify an opinion that the great mass of our fellow-citizens would highly approve a judicious system of education, devised by the Legislature. It cannot be supposed that individuals, thus anxiously engaged in the promotion of a good work—individuals too, among the most respectable and worthy of their various neighborhoods, would be displeased by a legislative interference, in aid of their laudable exertions. Such an interference would probably stimulate them to new exertions and to greater liberality.

The good effects of such a general system of schools cannot be doubted. One of our largest towns has, for the last twenty-seven years, maintained free schools at an average annual expense of four or five thousand dollars. The burthen thus imposed on its ratable inhabitants has been cheerfully borne, in the persuasion, established and confirmed by experience, that the expenditure is judicious and profitable.

Nor can it be doubted that the means of extending this inestimable blessing to all parts of the State are ample, and easily obtained. Tho expenses of the State government are light, in comparison with those of other State governments. A judicious selection of sources of revenue, hitherto untouched in this State, would furnish the requisite means, without direct assessment on property of whatever description.

A prudent view to its own preservation would seem to inculcate on every republican State the establshment of a general system of education. The general diffusion of knowledge is one of the most effectual means of imparting security and permanency to our liberal institutions. When the people are taught that lawful magistracy proceeds from their will, and is devised for their benefit, they will have been furnished with a powerful motive for the sedulous preservation of the law which they now enjoy.

The benefits of good government consist in the efficacious operation of the laws upon every class and order of society in the State. This efficacious operation can

only be promoted and perfected by the vigilance of the people—of those by whom and for whom the government has been created. But the people cannot properly exercise this vigilance, if they are not informed, as well of their rights as of the means by which those rights should be preserved. Among an illiterate an ueducated people, the love of freedom is an irregular passion, liable to be extinguished by its own extravagances. Among a well informed people, it becomes a moral sentiment, closely allied with their religion, and exercises its salutary influence in all their thoughts and actions. That all men are equally entitled to those rights of humanity, which are essential to their existence, their personal safety and happiness, as well as to those political rights which the laws of the community secure to its individual members—that all should be protected in the acquisition and enjoyment of property, under those laws—and that an infraction or denial of any of these rights to one, is a virtual invasion of the rights of *every one*—are truths which should be instilled by early education, and assimilated with all the thoughts and habits of the freeman. This cannot be otherwise done so well as by a general system of education, extended at the public expense, to all the citizens of the State.

The most valuable part of our patrimony is the freedom of our political institutions. Let us, while transmitting that freedom to our successors, endow them, also, with the knowledge by which it may be most effectually preserved. We owe this duty to ourselves, to them, and to our common country.

This Memorial, with others, was referred to a Committee who reported, at the January Session, a bill for the establishment of Free Schools. The debate was opened by the late Joseph L. Tillinghast, Esq., then a member from Providence, and Chairman of the Committee, who spoke as follows:

Mr. Speaker—I rejoice to have lived to see the day when the question, *whether we shall make provision, by free schools, for the education of our youth*, is presented distinctly for discussion in the Legislature of this state, with a view to a present decision. A happy union of circumstances—a deep and steady flow of just opinions—sentiments cherished and fostered with patience and with hope, concurring at length with the results of prosperous industry, have brought us to this position, and placed the important decision fairly and directly in our power. I am persuaded that upon this question, in which so many wishes, so many important interests, and the welfare of so many human beings, living and hereafter to live, are involved, we have now the power to give an affirmative decision, consistently with the most scrupulous prudence, according to our consciences, and with the cordial concurrence of a great majority of the people of this state. And I sincerely hope that no misapprehension or adverse event may now arise to deprive us of that power, or refer us to a distant—perhaps a hopeless—period for exerciseing it.

Sir, I would not willingly believe that a single member of this House is, in his heart, opposed to the appropriation of a portion of the public revenue to so laudable and lastingly beneficent a purpose. Were we in the dominions of some absolute prince, or domineering aristocracy, we might expect opposition to the *principle* of general instruction. Of such governments it is the policy to preserve unquestioned sway over a numerical population—to enchain the mind for the purpose of perpetuating a control over the body—to mould successive generations of men into willing and liveried instruments of ambition and power. The lawgiver consults the plain dictate of self-interest in locking up the fountains of learning and truth. Even the subjects, the defrauded victims of so degrading a policy, whose spirits, in their deplorable servitude, have lost the power of estimating or resenting the fraud, and are habituated to the moral darkness in which they are condemned to grope, will often shun and *refuse* the light that would rouse them from apathy to anguish, when it revealed to them their actual, but hopeless, degradation. But we inhabit no such subdued, sad, blighted region. We represent no such shackled, and dispirited, and degenerate people. Our lot is cast in a land of free states—in a sovereignty, small, it is true, in its extent of territory, but with intellectual and physical means exceeding the proportion of its extent. A state which has taken a lead in the liberality of civil institutions—originated bright and salutary examples,

as well as followed those of others—and claiming, by no slender title, the distinguished appellation of *freest of the free*.—We are surrounded by enlightened republicks, each pressing forward in the generous race of improvement, but with no more causes for emulation and ardor in that race than exist with us. Our very location, and the natural advantages which are crowded together in our limited territory, and which I need not point out to those who know, and feel, and gratefully acknowledge them—emphatically indicate that, with due encouragement, every art and every mystery which can make the materials of nature subservient to the best uses of society, may here be brought to the highest degree of excellence : and as to the *mind* which actuates our general population, (in which I include that interesting portion on which our hopes, and affections, and faith for future consolations and renovated strength, repose—the rising generation—) I believe it to be as capable of cultivation, as capable of rewarding cultivation, as rich in invention, as effective in operation, as sagacious and vigorous in applying instruction to its legitimate purposes, and improving it by the resources of native genius, as the collective mind of any people who have existed.

In such a state of things it strikes me that it is the *duty* of the lawgiver, promptly and with no further delay, than necessity requires, to make provision for general instruction. With us, the lawgiver is the people. It is the interest of the people that the civil rights and institutions, which they enjoy, should outlive the dangers to which the fluctuations and changes in society must subject them, and be perpetuated in their posterity. It is therefore the *interest*, as well as the *duty* of the lawgivers, to provide for general instruction. It is the interest of every individual and every class of the people. Not merely in their civil or collective capacity, but in every capacity, in every relation, in every pursuit, which can justly excite the attachments or the activity of a rational and immortal being amid the obligations of public or the more endearing ties of domestic life; in the rational pursuits of business or repose. To the owners and operators of every valuable species of property, its fruits must be an increased value, and improvement, and security to that property. To those who have none, it gives consolation, and usefulness, and the hope and means of acquisition. In a Republican Government, the prize is not set on high for a favored few, nor must the avenues be locked to all but the possessors of a golden key. The child of poverty and obscurity, as well as the child of wealth and honor, may aspire to the same rank, the same credit, the same sources of enjoyment; and is bound by the same general duties. He ought to be qualified to discharge those duties. The means of acquiring these enjoyments ought not to be withheld.

It has been strongly said that our constitutions do not recognize such a being as an unlettered man. Sir, every citizen has not only the right but in some instances is even bound by conscientious duty, to take some part in public affairs. One of the most simple and ordinary of political acts which a freeman is called to perform, is that of giving his suffrage. He should be qualified to perform it with intelligence; with a mind instructed in the tendency of measures, neither depressed and doubtful, nor confident and obstinate, through ignorance, nor liable, to be misled by influence and art. But, above all, he should be able to perform the act itself, by himself, without the aid, perhaps the interested aid of another. With us the very act of voting requires that he should be able to *read* his vote, and *write* his name.

The rudiments of Education are the *equipments* of the citizen; and he can no more perform the duties of self government—he can no more pass through the forms that a republican government requires of him without them, than the soldier can perform military duty without the arms and equipments which the law prescribes—and which, let me add, the law *provides* for him who has not the means of furnishing himself Nor have the citizens of this state, sir, been insensible in time past to the importance of promoting education. It would be unjust to leave or to countenance an impression that they had been so insensible. It would be unjust to omit to correct such an impression if such at this time any where exists.—Left as this state was at the close of the war Independence, loaded with an enormous debt contracted in defence of the common country, which it had not the good fortune to procure to be funded and assumed by the United States, as other states did with theirs,—limited in territory, and, until a new spring was given to our resources, limited in means, our citizens for a long period had a hard struggle to maintain against disadvantages for which they were not in fault and

found it difficult to meet the necessary and ordinary expenses of government. But from the printed summary which we have seen at this session, exhibiting the number and state of the school houses and schools, in our several towns we cannot but derive gratifying evidence that this great object has by no means been left without attention. In various towns, especially in latter years individuals have associated themselves and devoted a zeal and bounty worthy of all praise, to the providing of schools for their respective districts and families. But this mode operates hardly and unequally upon a few, whose spirit leads them to adopt it and its benefits do not flow over the whole community, nor always reach those who most emphatically need them.

Twenty-eight years have now nearly elapsed since this General Assembly passed an act establishing Free Schools.* That act was repealed before it had gone completely into operation. It contained some provisions, not contained in the bill now reported, which proved to be unacceptable to the people of most of the towns. But, sir, with no other obligation or guaranty than that act, the town which I have the honor to represent, (Providence,) proceeded to establish Free Schools, and by what may perhaps be called a voluntary and unanimous constitution from its citizens, has continued to maintain and augment them to this day. What is the practical lesson of *experience*, which has thus been furnished us? We live with the daily exhibition of that lesson before our eyes, and can judge. Do you believe that among the sources of the success and growth of this town (and I speak of them not for any purpose of pride, but for improvement)—do you believe that among the causes of its prosperity we may not place this early care to rescue the infant mind and give it the means of usefulness and honorable industry? Do you believe that we should now have possessed the same orderly, industrious, enterprizing, intelligent, thriving population, which it is but justice to say we have, had each successive generation been left, without this care, to waste the precious hours of childhood in the streets, or, if they escaped idleness and vice, to feel the pirvations and mortifications of ignorance during life? Sir, among the brightest minds that have adorned their native town and carried their enterprize with its visible and salutary effects into all portions of the state, are some of those who received their first lessons in education at these primary schools

Without appealing to the free and enlightened nations of former times, that ever recognized the provision for education as forming a paramount claim upon the legislato, we have sufficient experience of our own; and in the forms of our government it must be allowed that this claim is enforced by a superior and peculiar necessity.

But fears are entertained in consequence of the failure of the act of 1800. In the first place, that act was compulsory. It compelled every town, at its own immediate expense, by means of taxation, to build school houses, and establish and maintain schools therein; after which twenty per cent of such annual taxes, if the whole did not exceed $6000, was to be drawn by the towns out of the General Treasury. But the most offensive section, the one which probably hastened the repeal, was that in which seven freemen in any school district were authorised to hold a district meeting, and order, assess and levy taxes in the same manner as town taxes to any amount that they should deem expedient, for schooling, independently of the general provision made by the town. This delegation of great authority to a few persons, a majority of whom might be interested in making the taxes exhorbitant, occasions great uneasiness.

The present bill is free from such objections. It has no compulsory provisions or penalties. It leaves the towns the voluntary option to unite in and partake of its provisions or not. It offers and provides for them an inducement, operating from year to year, to unite and partake by provisions of their own; but if they think proper to postpone this course, it leaves them, in the mean time, precisely where they are, untaxed for the benefit of others, and at liberty to take their proportions when they choose. It goes upon the belief, justified by a knowledge of the liberality of our citizens, that no town which chooses not to make a provision for the present, will be actuated by any jealous or unsocial disposition to prevent others from doing so who may be willing. It does not defer the accomplishment of its objects and the long deferred hopes of the community to a distant and speculative period. It makes a present provision for the benefit of the children of this

*See Journal of R. I. Institute of Instruction, vol. 1, p. 101.

our day, as well as those of future times; an immediate provision for that grea good, an early education; of which every man who has fortunately received the benefits, knows how to estimate the value, and every one who has been unfortunately left destitute, feels and deeply deplores the irreparable privation. It makes that provision at a time when the state of the public treasury fully justifies it; when the sources of revenue heretofore provided have begun to be effective and productive, according to their respective character, and promise to continue so, according to every probable estimate, without diminution.

[Mr. T. then made a thorough statement of the situation of the Treasury, and showed that the amount appropriated by the bill could be calculated on, and then proceeded.]

Being then in a situation to make a present provision, let us for a moment consider the principle of the bill reported. By the first section a sum left blank, and which, upon the supposition that the rest of the bill passes, I shall propose to be $10,000—is to be set apart from the revenue arising from lotteries and auction sales, to be paid out annually to the towns, according to their respective proportions under the last estimate of ratcable property. This seems the most obvious, just, and equal ratio of distribution; and, as far as we can pursue equality, we are bound to do so. When we come to the actual application of the money to its immediate object, the idea of equality, in respect to the numbers of individuals to be benefitted by each portion, cannot be retained. An individual who has but one child, though he may be assessed at twenty dollars tax, will receive less fruits of the appropriation than he who is assessed at a dollar and has ten children. And this will apply also to the respective towns, as well as families, who may have more or less children requiring education than their respective proportions in the estimate.—Perfect equality in the *application*, therefore, is impossible. But equality in the *distribution*, according to the proportion in which the towns are bound to *contribute* to the public expenses, is attainable, and seems just. Nevertheless, I have heard suggestions from several members that the ratio of *population* might be preferable. If so, it is open to discussion; and if, upon discussion, that ratio is deemed best, it will prevail. I wish to be distinctly understood, that if the main principle and benefit contemplated by the bill is established, it is not my purpose or wish to adhere pertinaciously to the exact provisions of the bill on this point, or on any other, or to refuse my vote to any fair modification. Whatever qualifications consistent with the spirit and efficacy of the measure, may be found expedient by the expressed sense of the House, after due deliberation, shall have my cheerful acquiescence. And from the effect of this remark I would not exclude the Second Section, which provides that each Town, before receiving its proportion, is to raise a sum equal to—I should say the sum—which it is entitled to, as its proportion of the appropriation. A difference of opinion exists as to the amount so to be raised by the towns; and half the above sum has been named. This also is open to discussion, in settling the details of the bill. But I would here suggest that it is certainly an object to provide as much as $20,000 annually. Upon $20,000 apportioned according to the estimate, the smallest Towns in the State would have $116.

The treasury could not probably spare $20,000 a year, without resorting to other modes of supplying it than those that have of late sufficed. And of all modes of directly raising money, none are so satisfactory as that by which the freemen of each Town, by themselves and their own officers under their own inspection and at their own times, raise what is wanted for their own use and benefit. Raising part of the fund directly from themselves, they would feel a direct interest in seeing to its careful application, and I think we should be mistaken if we should suppose that the freemen of most of the Towns in the State are not, at this time, prepared, willingly and cheerfully to raise their proportions, for the objects of this bill. By a provision in connexion with this, the Towns that neglect to raise their proportion, do not thereby lose their right to partake of the fund, except for each year of the neglect. Their proportions are to be added to the fund for distribution the next year, and they can at any time come in and partake. The succeeding Sections provide for the appointment of School committees, and their powers and duties;

and for the mode in which the Treasurer is to keep his accounts of the revenues appropriated, and report and publish each Town's annual proportion.

The last Section provides for an appropriation of a sum certain, out of the money now in the treasury, to be invested in productive Stock, for the commencement and formation of a permanent School Fund, allowing only so much of the interest to be used as may be required in case of a deficiency in the sum for annual distribution. The object of this is to form a nucleus upon which future appropriations and donations accruing, may accumulate and be preserved inviolate for the purposes of Public Education.

These being the prineipal features of the bill before you, I now move, Sir, that we proceed to consider it Section by Section. And I sincerely hope and trust that we shall proceed in the spirit of conciliation, and mutual concession, without embarrassment and with united purpose, to adopt the main principle of the bill; to make it conform to our best views of prudence and utility; and at all events, before we leave it, before we separate, now, in our day and opportunity, to discharge our duty to the Republic in this particular, and make an effectnal provsion for the education of our youth, which may be felt in its salutary effects upon this and each succeeding generation.

A substitute for the bill of the Committee was proposed by Mr. Waterman, of Warwick, in which provision was made for a permanent and accumulating fund, and the establishment of schools was postponed until the increase of the fund was large enough to support them without subjecting the people to taxation in their behalf. A similar plan was afterwards presented by Governor Fenner, in the Senate. It was feared that the landholders would not acquiesce in the imposition of a tax. To this argument Mr Tillinghast replied :—

The gentleman asks us if we believe that the people, and especially the landholders, will consent to make it good. Sir, this is speaking as if the people, and especially the landholders, were a class of persons who are to receive no benefit from this measure, and had no interest in it, on their own account. Are they supposed incapable of perceiving that it is a general benefit, of which each class will partake as largely as any other? Or are the cultivators of the soil supposed to be willing that Education and information, and the means ot advancement in life, shall be excluded from them and from their children, and confined to persons engaged in other pursuits? But, independently of all moral benefits, and upon mere consideration of property, does not every landholder know that the value of his land is increased by the Education of youth, and the enlightened, moral and well informed condition of the community growing up around him—that his farm is more valuable if situated in an orderly, well instructed and enterprising neighborhood, than if less fortunately located? In another view, it has been stated by an intelligent and leading Manufacturer, that the very water-power of Rhode-Island, was, to a known extent, less valuable than that in the contiguous States, for want of a provision for schools which these States enjoy. The price of schooling is felt in the wages of the families employed. It would be vain to attempt to enumerate or describe the various channels by which benefits are constantly flowing to and through and over a community, from fountains of instruction widely opened and liberally maintained.

This appeal to the landholders, the landed interest, is often resorted to for other purposes than their interests. I know it is a catching argument. But the landholders ot this State are too magnanimous, and too intelligent to be borne away by the drift of such an appeal on this subject. They are watchful and cautious, as they should be in regard to expenditure. But for a good purpose, for a valuable object, they are willing to do whatever justice and the occasion may require. They are as capable as others of estimating the returns which an expenditure for this object will

make. And, Sir, let me say, and I appeal to their own hearts for its truth, they have strong attachments—they have deep and kindly feelings—they love their children, and are willing to do as much as others for their present and future good. If the landholders in this House shall adopt the principles of this bill as reasonable, what right will any one have to say that other landholders cannot see reason as well as they? But thus it is. When we are in the Assembly we hear it said, "the *people will not consent;*" and when we are among the people, we hear it echoed "*the Assembly will not act.*" I am somewhat acquainted with the sentiments of the people on this subject, in various parts of the State. I have conversed with many of all occupations, and I believe that the people are ready to do their part, if the Assembly will do theirs. * * * * * *

Reference is repeatedly made to the sense of the people. Sir, we should respect the sense of the people. But much do they mistake the feelings and views of the people of this State, who suppose them adverse to a present and effectual provision for Education. If it were so, it would be our duty to endeavor to convince them of better things. And every legislator, after all, will find that the surest way to satisfy his constituents is, upon a careful survey of the premises on which he acts, to act satisfactorily to his own conscientious judgment. His example, as well as his act, will thus be salutary, and stands the best chance of being acceptable—and if not, he has provided for himself a support and consolation of which nothing can deprive him.

Mr. Dixon, of Westerly, appears from this Report to have been one of the most earnest advocates for immediate action on the subject.

If, Sir, there is any public utility to be derived from Free Schools, and we now have the means of providing for that measure, why not do it at once? We have the means of commencing them upon a reasonable though limited scale I admit, and I ask who can doubt their utility? None who have seen their beneficial results.—What greater benefit can be conferred on a community, and especially the youth of that community, than a general diffusion of the first rudiments of science; it is the great corrective by which society is reformed. Who are there in this State who are opposed to its being done in some degree at public expense? Whatever is of public good is generally conducive to private benefit. The gentleman from Warwick says the farming interest, the landholders, will not approve of it. But I believe every class who comprehend its principles and see its benefits, will approve of it. Those who are conversant with the different classes of the community in the State—and the State is so small that most of us are acquainted with all the different interests it combines—must be thoroughly convinced from their own observation, of the great importance of the measure in contemplation. Is it not all important for this State to retain its population? And what will more conduce to that end than the establishment of such institutions as will afford its population the same benefits that they can derive in other States. The Towns of Providence and Newport, for instance, will retain their population, because their own wisdom and liberality have lead them to establish free schools—in the benefits of which all classes may participate. But the mechanics in the country are constantly removing to those Towns, or to other States, that they may be able to school their children. Are not also the laborers at your manufactoring establishments, leaving them and going into States where the common branches of learning are more accessible, and is not the provisions of some consequence to those manufacturing establishments, which so greatly contribute to the present prosperity and distinction of the State. Not only, Sir, does the country part of the State loose its mechanics, and the Manufacturers their laborers, but, Sir, the small farmers in the country who are not able to send their children abroad, are selling their small farms and removing into States where schools are established by law and where they may educate their children in the common branches of learning, at home. Are those the farmers whom the gentleman from Warwick says, are opposed to supporting schools at public expense? I should think that class would rejoice in the establishment of public schools.

But I ask, Sir, why any landholder should be opposed to this measure? Let

his estate be ever so extensive,his possessions may leave him,his lands may pass from under him, and his money and his bank stock may take to itself wings and fly away. Wealth is transitory, and extremely so in this country. The descendants of the present rich may sooner or later become the future poor. Let every rich man then, who contributes to the establishment of free schools, consider that he is bequeathing a legacy, and the richest one in the gift of man, to his children, his grand children and to his great grand children. * *

It is among the great objects of establishing schools by law, that the first rudiments of learning may be generally diffused among the lower classes of the community; that the children of the poor may commence in school exercises while young; and as soon as they are old enough to go to school, they will then, either from taste or habit, progress, and those who have talents will soon display their gifts; but if they are neglected until they have arrived to riper years—they are deterred from entering on the first lessons in education, either from shame or aversion, or from habitual negligence, and of course grow up in ignorance.

Wherever you extend the light of science, talent is developed—extend the means of education even to those in the mire and darkness of obscurity, and you will bring forth genius and enterprise—boys in the lowest conditions in life, and who perform servile offices, may have high and exalted capacities, and with the aid of education, may become distinguished in the departments of church and State. They may, Sir, in some future day, when talents are most wanted, command your ships in triumph on the ocean, or lead your armies to victory.

Mr. Potter, of South Kingstown, remarked—

I am sincerely in favor of establishing schools. I want to carry it into effect. I know how beneficial Free Schools have been to this Town, (Providence.) The houses here rent for 50 per cent more, than they would if there were no public schools. A mechanic can afford to pay it, because he more than saves it in educating his children. It is owing to this that the town of Providence has been getting away the population from the rest of the State.

The Bill was opposed on its own merits, principally by Mr. Bull, and Mr. Hazard, of Newport.

Mr. Cranston of Newport—I am not surprised at all, Sir, at the strenuous opposition of my worthy colleagues, (Messrs Hazard and Bull,) to giving the towns a discretionary power. The gentlemen will excuse me if I disclose the secret of this opposition, and leave the House to judge of the motive. Two or three years ago, the town of Newport saw the necessity of establishing Free schools. Seven-eighths of the town were decidedly in favor of the measure, but unfortunately these two able gentlemen who are about equal to the other eigthth, opposed it. They were very learned in the law, as to the right of the town to levy a tax for the support of schools, and I listened to their arguments until I became almost convinced the town had no such right. Petitions and applications were made to the General Assembly by both parties. We had five or six town meetings on the subject, and always carried every vote, and although seven-eighths of the freemen were in favor of schools, and these two gentlemen opposed, they had the monstrous power to beat us, and compel us to take up with such a provision as they chose the General Assembly should grant us.—Having been so far gratified, I really do hope they will now have the goodness to give way a little and allow the House to pass an act in favor of Free Schools without their interference. They are not afraid of the taxes in the other towns. All they are alarmed about is the town of Newport.

The Bill after an able and protracted discussion, passed by a vote of 57 in the affirmative, and 2 in the negative. The debate in the Senate is not reported at any length. The Bill passed that body with a few amendments, without a dissenting voice. The amendments were concurred in by the House, and the foundation was thus laid for the present School System of Rhode Island.

CONDITION OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN 1832.

The following extracts are taken from a Pamphlet printed in 1832, entitled "*The Report of a Committee on the subject of Schools; with a Table shewing the number of Schools in Rhode-Island, the sums expended for their support, and the number of scholars taught in them. Submitted May* 17, 1832."

The committee was appointed at a meeting of gentlemen interested in the cause of education, which was held in the Town House in May, 1831, and of which President Wayland was Chairman. The Report, we learn, was prepared by Oliver Angell, a veteran Rhode-Island teacher.

"The law establishing Public Schools in this State, is of recent date. It cannot, therefore, be expected that your committe will be able to state any facts shewing the comparative increase of information farther than may be deduced from the increased number of schools. Your committee perceive, both from the reports which they have received from the several towns and from personal observation, that the system of Public Schools has not yet acquired that stability and uniformity which it undoubtedly will attain, after a little more experience and a more general interchange of opinions and feelings on the subject of education, between the intelligent and influential citizens of the different towns. If some regular plan could be devised by which this mutual interchange of views on this important subject might be promoted, your committee think it would greatly facilitate the progress of education through the State.

We find that in some of the districts there are not yet convenient houses or rooms provided for the accommodation of the Schools, but this deficiency will probably soon be supplied. Considerable difficulty has also been experienced in some towns in the location of School-Houses so as to meet the convenience of the inhabitants. When the deficiency in School-Houses shall be remedied, the difficulties attending their location removed, and a regular and systematic plan established in every town, the benefits resulting to the community from this best of all establishments of our State, will become more obvious."

The Report discusses very ably the qualifications of teachers, and the studies, and methods of instruction and discipline to be introduced into Public Schools.

"Upon a review of the subject, your committee find much cause for congratulation in the increased and increasing means of education in the State. There is not a town in which *all* the children may not have the means of acquiring a common school education, and when we consider the nature of our institutions, and how much their preservation depends on the general spread of information, and on the correct morals of our youth, we have much cause to rejoice at the present favorable prospects, and we look forward to the period when Rhode-Island shall be as celebrated for the facilities afforded to education, as she now is for her industry and manufactures."

The following table and summary is annexed to the Report, which we publish as one of the land-marks by which to measure the progress which has been made in public instruction in Rhode-Island.

Towns.	Pub. Schools.	No. Scholars	M Teachers employed.	Female do. do.	Appropriated by the Town.	Priv. Schools.	No. Scholars.	M. Teachers.	Female do.
			Months.	Months.	$			Months.	Months.
Providence,	11	1150	6s 12	5s 12	5000	56	1682	14s 12	42s 12
N. Providence,	8	400	3	3	574	10	300	12	12
Smithfield,	24	2049	3	3	600				
Cumberland,	17	1200	2	2	500	17	1000	2	2
Burrillville,	16	800	2 1-2	4	300	16	500		2
Glocester,	17	510	3	4	550	17	400		4
Scituate,	16	680	3 1-2		300	20	550		4
Foster,	19	1197	3	3					
Johnston,	11	400	3	3	366				
Cranston,	11	550	3 1-2		500				
Bristol,	3	275	4 & 12	6	500	11	240	12	12
Warren,	4	230	3 & 12	3 & 12	350	9	200	1 for 12	8 for 3m
Barrington,	3	113	3	3					
Warwick,	13	1040	4		500				
Coventry,	18	900	4		300				
East Greenwich	5	250	3		100	3	80	1 for 12	12
W. Greenwich,	11	300	3			5	100		3
Newport,	2	400	12	12	800	32	900	12	12
Tiverton,	12	600	2	2		20	400	1	2
Portsmouth,	8	360	2			3	60		2
Little Compton	7	245	1			7	175	2	4
New Shoreham	3	100	2						
Middletown,	5	210	4			5	155	3	3
Jamestown,	2	100	3						
N. Kingstown,	12	550	2 3-4	3		8	250		4
S. Kingstown,	12	360	2			4	200	12	
Exeter,	13	390	2 3-4						
Westerly,	11	400	3 1-2		150	8	250		4
Hopkinton,	12	550	3 1-2		100	9	225		4
Richmond,	9	225	3			5	100		3
Charlestown,	8	500	3			4	80		3
			Teachers.	Teachers				Teachers.	Teachers.
Total,	323	17034	318	147	11490	269	7847	83	186

Whole number of Public Schools in the State.	- - - -	323
Whole number of Scholars taught in them,	- - - -	17034
Number of Male Teachers employed,	- - - - -	228
Number of Female Teachers employed,	- - - - -	147
Number of Schools continued through the year,	- - - - -	20
Average time of the others,	- - - - - - -	3 months
Whole amount appropriated by the towns for the support of Schools,		$11490
Amount drawn from School Fund,	- - - - - - -	$10000
Whole amount expended for support of Public Schools,	- -	$21490
Number of Private Schools continued through the year,*	Male Teachers,	30
	Female do.	88
Whole number of Scholars taught in them, (exclusive of the Friends' Boarding School, Providence,†)	- -	3403

Estimated expense of the Private Schools which continue through the year, at twenty dollars per scholar,	68040
Estimated expense of other Private Schools, at $3 per scholar,	13335
Total estimated expense of Private Schools,	81375
Sum total expended for support of Schools for one year,	102865

*In nearly all the country towns, the Private Schools may be considered as the Public Schools continued by individual subscription, from three to six months.

†This flourishing institution contains on an average, 160 scholars.

ANNUAL ABSTRACT OF THE SCHOOL RETURNS FROM 1839 TO 1844.

In 1838, the School committee of the several towns were required for the first time, to make annually to the Secretary of State a Return, showing the condition of the Public Schools in certain particulars. Of these Returns, the Secretary was required to make an Abstract, and submit the same to the General Assembly in May of each year. As a part of the history of Public Schools in Rhode-Island, we copy from a Schedule the Abstracts for 1839, and 1844, and a Summary of the Returns for several years, in a few important particulars.

The following communication to the General Assembly, accompanied the Abstract for 1839.

"The Secretary herewith presents the Abstract of the Returns of the Public Schools required by law.

"This being the first year the Returns have been made, it could not be expected they would be so uniform and correct as they probably will be hereafter. It is to be hoped that the Returns to be made next year under the amended law, will give a correct statistical account of the state of education among us, not only in the Public Schools but in our Academies and Private Schools, and will show that we are not far behind our sister States in our zeal for the cause of education.

"In some of the towns it appears that money has been raised by a town tax to support schools. In others the fuel and board of the instructor have been paid for by the voluntary contribution of the inhabitants, and no account kept of it,

"For this reason the Returns do not always state the salaries of teachers correctly, as in many cases they are boarded by the districts in addition to their stated money pay.

"Providence, Newport and Bristol, have long been provided with convenient Public School-houses, and special acts have been passed for building them by taxation in the towns of Richmond, Charlestown, Hopkinton, Exeter, Westerly, Smithfield, E. Greenwich and Cumberland. Most of the other towns have buildings erected by subscription, devoted entirely to this use, but not sufficient in number to accommodate all the Schools.

"The list of books used in our Schools is very important, and from the consideration of it many alterations and improvements will probably

be suggested in the selection of them. The great variety of the books used in the Schools is much to be deprecated.

"The experience derived from the Returns of the present year will be of great value in preparing the forms which will be distributed the next year, and ensure greater completeness and accuracy in the next Abstract."

ABSTRACT OF RETURNS OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS, MAY, 1839.

TOWNS.	Proportion of $25000 which each town will receive, June, 1839.	Amo'nt raised by Towns.	No. districts.	No. of schools	No. instructrs	Expended fuel, furniture, rent, repairs, &c.	Expended for instruction.	No. of Scholars. Agg.	Aver.
Newport,	1739 52	800 00	1	2	2	295 20	1025 00	265	215
Providence,	3818 20	7000 00	5	15	34	535 51	8426 90	1753	1753
Portsmouth,	440 53		8	8	8		487 69	245	225
Westerly,	499 45		11	12	12		598 68	473	385
Warwick,	1454 50	400 00	14	14	12	178 67	1082 42	746	746
N. Shoreham,	359 00	84 00	4	4	4	21 00	394 43	190	200
N. Kingstown,	827 62		14	16	16	124 17	792 05	479	421
S. Kingstown,	1042 75		18	18	18	94 67	1059 71	645	645
E. Greenwich,	389 15		5	5	5	44 50	386 30	209	189
Jamestown,	80 15		1	3	3	14 00	159 00	53	53
Smithfield,	1738 85	1000 00	25	30	30		2511 56	1206	960
Scituate,	1048 92	300 00	16	16	16		1472 00	734	577
Glocester,	690 60	627 34	18	16	20	87 54	858 95	384	384
Charlestown,	359 00		8	8	8		379 85	246	246
W. Greenwich,	530 28		12	15	16	15 00	572 00	253	227
Coventry,	1059 20		19	19	19		1172 30	470	470
Exeter,	685 80		13	13	13	28 40	479 65	284	284
Middletown,	252 80		1	5	5	50 00	490 88	200	200
Bristol,	790 62		3	5	10	297 52	1367 50	320	320
Tiverton,	787 90		15	17	21	135 12	637 11	349	310
L. Compton,	359 00		7	7	13	7 43	390 00	530	227
Warren,	403 52	360 00	3	3	3	127 87	445 09	132	109
Cumberland,	970 83	500 00	19	19	22		1594 42	412	432
Richmond,	413 80		12	10	10		458 00	219	182
Cranston,	680 33	500 00	9	13	13	501 03	606 82	407	407
Hopkinton,	481 65		12	12	12		689 26	478	337
Johnston,	604 95	350 00	11	12	15	113 47	718 47	333	333
N. Providence,	864 62	260 00	8	10	13	124 08	1091 30	463	388
Barrington,	160 31	93 75	3	3	3	100 70	170 10	194	143
Foster,	821 45		19	19	19		938 22	619	431
Burrillville,	644 70	300 00	16	16	32	75 62	927 70	446	447
	25000 00	1257509	330	365	427	2 971 50	32 383 36	13748	12246

SUMMARY OF THE SEVERAL RETURNS FOR 1839 TO 1844.

Year,	*Scholars.* Male.	Female.	*Expended for* Fuel & incid'l.	Instruction.
1839.	8 112.	5 636.	$2 971 50.	$32 383 36.
1840.	10 202.	7 550.	4 103 80.	36 095 98.
1841.	11 253.	9 000.	6 312 64.	40 516 01.
1842.	12 479.	9 372.	5 482 00.	39 088 43.
1843.	11 960.	8 132.	5 898 55.	42 944 29.
1844.	11 811	10 345	5 405 47.	48 335 76.

ABSTRACT OF THE RETURNS OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS, MADE MAY, 1844.

TOWNS.	Received from State.	Received from Town	No. Dist.	No. Schools.	Instructors		Expended for		Scholars.	
					Male.	Female	Fuel, Rent.	Instruction.	Agg.	Aver.
Newport,	176659	1600	2	11	5	8	600	3095	690	600
Providence,	505742	1648920	6	26	11	49	257162	18975	4118	3159
Portsmouth,	37442		8	8	6	4	120	1020	282	192
Westerly,	45395	8654	11	14	12	2		53852	531	344
Warwick,	155636	500 00	15	22	18	9	31583	191891	1491	1087
N. Shoreham,	29982		5	9	8		150	29982	232	171
N. Kingstown,	66681	26287	15	20	19	2		92938	514	400
S. Kingstown,	96432	378	21	21	21			113835	822	521
E. Greenwich,	33044	75	5	5	5		1202	39416	283	200
Jamestown,	6633	1632	1	5	7	2		156	94	72
Smithfield,	217523	137093	35	38	20	10	50	3496	2790	1200
Scituate,	96310	51658	17	18	13	5		147968	880	570
Glocester,	55118	400	19	17	13	14	1731	109196	483	332
Charlestown,	25094		8	8	7	1		26504	218	140
W. Greenwich,	33635		12	12	10	2			232	148
Coventry,	81781	18608	18	18	17	1	912	93142	716	427
Exeter,	44673	5007	13	13	12	1		49680	374	225
Middletown,	19839	41	2	5	4	1	35	23939	93	93
Bristol,	81857	1000	3	6	4	3	200 09	153425	444	352
Tiverton,	80443	63937	16	19	14	5		109577	698	434
Little Compton	32321	4129	9	9	9	9		36450	285	200
Warren,	45789	39675	3	4	3	4	12522	78625	263	134
Cumberland,	116809	98356	20	20	15	14	20080	202575	1090	774
Richmond,	34076	6156	13	12	12		32532	49732	218	200
Cranston,	68126	744	9	12	12		24887	81080	407	332
Hopkinton,	42242		12	12	12			38960	407	251
Johnston,	58995	400	14	14	13	3	13030	85965	592	428
N. Providence,	98282	115921	9	13	5	8	24730	1750	1752	750
Barrington,	12656	100	3	3	3	3	3562	236	128	102
Foster,	62453		19	18	18	3		62453	495	304
Burrillville,	46906	42050	16	16	18	10	1117	89591	503	386
Total,	2509574	279183	359	428	342	173	540547	4833576	22156	14528

DEBATE ON THE SCHOOL ACT OF 1845.

The debate on the Act of 1845, at the June session of the General Assembly in 1844, was reported in the Providence Daily Journal of July of the same year. We republish the report of Mr. Updike's remarks from the Daily Journal of July 3, 1844.

Mr. Updike.—Mr. Speaker, * * * * * * * * There is a wide-spread dissatisfaction with the schools as they are; with the inefficient manner in which the system is administered; with the shortness of time for which the schools are kept—although they are quite long enough unless they can be kept by better teachers; with the amount of money which is now appropriated by the State, without calling forth any corresponding effort and appropriations from the towns and districts; with the want of any suitable regulation as to books and studies; with the defective methods of instruction and the harsh, unnecessarily harsh discipline pursued by many of the schools; in fine, with the entire organization

and administration of the system, as far at least as the great mass of the towns are concerned. True there are good schools in Providence, Bristol, Warren and Newport, and in some of the eastern towns of Providence county, but the returns to the Secretary of State, and the report of your school commissioner will show that the public schools are not kept in the country districts, on an average, three months in the year; that there are a great variety of text books in every school, and that this variety is made greater every year through the activity of book agents, authors and publishers; that the school houses are deficient in respect to size, the means of ventilation, and the construction and arrangement of seats and desks; that the teachers are employed without being examined, and that too many of them are but poorly qualified in respect to moral character, as well as ability to govern and instruct children; that their teachers come prowling into the State from Connecticut and Massachusetts, and New Hampshire, because they are too well known at home to get employed there, and because we have no system of strict examination and supervision by which their deficiences might be exposed; that these teachers, at the close of the schools, march back again—laughing at our credulity—to their homes, to work on the farm or in the shop, till the season comes round for a new expedition for schools into Rhode Island; and, in fine, that the whole system works badly and inefficiently.

[Mr. Updike, in this part of his speech, gave a ludicrous picture of some of the schools, school houses, teachers and committees, which had come under his knowledge, but which it is impossible to report.]

Such is the state of the schools, and such is the state of the public mind regarding our system. There is a demand from every parent, and every friend of education who has thought at all upon the subject, for something better, and that speedily. Let us take the first great step for the attainment of this object—let us place the organization of the schools on the basis of this bill, and secure the services of an experienced and able officer to superintend its administration. The system will be good for nothing without a head, and your Commissioner can do nothing without the means, the powers, and the agencies provided in this act. The system proposed, though new as a whole, is not untried in its various details. Its chief value consists in its embodying the best features of the best school systems in this country and in Europe, and thus enabling us to profit by the experience of others; and no one unacquainted with the practical working of these various systems could have arranged, subordinated and condensed the regulations which this experience had shown to be necessary and wise, as they are presented in the measure prepared by our agent of public schools. By it we shall avoid the evils which I have described, and which in a measure destroy the efficiency of the common schools in other States. With this act, the system will have a head, by which the state of the schools will be constantly known, and any improvement in one district or town can be made the common property of every other town and district. Any case of local or individual hardship from the operation of a general rule can be relieved and corrected. Any town or district which is prepared to go forward, will not be kept back by the apathy and narrow policy of other towns or districts. The evils of badly constructed school-houses will be done away with speedily,

by a dissemination of a knowledge of the correct principles and improved plans of school-house architecture. The more extensive employment of female teachers, under the proposed system of primary and secondary schools, wherever it can be adopted, will do away with the evils resulting from a constant change of teachers, and the crowding together of children of all ages and studies, and every degree of proficiency, in the same school. More system will be given to the management and supervision of schools by the permanency given to the office of school committees; and more of local interest by the appointment of trustees by the school districts. Better teachers will be employed. The schools will be kept for a longer time. The best text books will be adopted. More children will be brought into the schools, and a more general and vigorous co-operation of parents and the public will be secured.

I hope, therefore, Mr. Speaker, that this bill will pass, and pass now. If we propose to enjoy the benefits of a system of general, thorough, practical education, we must begin. It is absurd to wait till every town in the State is prepared. We shall wait till dooms-day if we expect to wait till the ignorant come forward to ask for an education for their children, the pleasures and advantages of which they are entirely unconscious of themselves. And it will be a new era in this State, if the towns of Kent and Washington counties come forward and ask for taxation, although I believe they are ready to tax themselves to the amount proposed in this bill, if it be necessary to secure the State appropriation, and it can be shown that this increase of means will in the end be a great saving in the aggregate expenditure for education in any town. Make the public schools good enough for all, and the experience of Providence shows that a liberal expenditure, and intelligent supervision, and good teachers, will make them so, and then the expense of schooling a child properly will be reduced at least one-half, if not three-fourths, to every parent. Why, sir, the absence of good public schools in the country towns makes the tuition of our children in private schools enormous. It is the heaviest item of expense we have, and especially if we are obliged to send them away from home for an education. And then the withdrawal of so many of the children of the wealthy and the intelligent from the public schools because they are so inefficiently managed, helps to make them still worse. We must act liberally and together in this cause. The State must continue to appropriate as large a sum as heretofore for the support of public schools. The towns must do as much, and more; and then, if there is any deficiency in the means, the districts, or the parents who send, must contribute, and thus enable the school committee to employ good teachers. We must elect capable men to the office of school committees, and men of education and wealth must consent to act as committees. These committees must see that none but moral and qualified teachers are employed, and that our young men and young women may qualify themselves to be teachers, let us contribute from our means as individuals to establish and maintain model schools and normal schools. Let us have our Rhode Island Institute of Instruction, which shall meet in different parts of the State, where teachers and the friends of education may come together and discuss the great subjects which concern the improvement of the public schools. Let us go

round into the districts and point out to parents and to our fellow citizens generally existing defects, and all desirable and practical remedies, in the government and management of these schools.

But let us start right. Let us have an organization to begin with, so that our efforts will not be thrown away, and our money squandered as now. Let us have a law by which good schools can be established if we can convince the people that it is their interest to establish them. Let us have a law, by which none but qualified teachers shall be employed, and as far as practicable, Rhode Island teachers, educated in our own schools, sympathizing with us, understanding our ways, and spending their lives and their money in our own borders, may be employed. Let us have a law by which the enormous evil and expense, arising out of a constant change of school books shall be remedied; and all new school-houses erected after judicious plans and directions. Let us have a law by which the public interest shall be kept alive and vigilant, to look after the expenditure of the public money, and see that the results correspond with the outlay. Let us have an officer, whose intelligence, experience and constant oversight, shall give efficiency and uniformity to the administration of the system—who shall go round among the schools, hold meetings of teachers, parents and the friends of education, break up the apathy which prevails in some parts of the State, enlighten the ignorant, and direct the efforts of all to one great and glorious end, the training of all the children, the rich and the poor, in all sound knowledge and worthy practice. Let us have a State pride on this subject. Let us aim to be, what I am sure we can become from our compact population, and the comparative wealth of all our people, the educated and educating State of this Union. Instead of being set down in the census of the United States, as the seventh State in the scale of ignorance, and neglect of public education—instead of having one in forty of our population who cannot read and write—instead of giving occasion for geographers and travellers to say, that Rhode Island is behind every other New England State in the means and results of common school education—instead of all this, let us make an immediate and vigorous effort to reverse the picture. Let us stand at the head of the list, for a wisely organized and efficiently administered system of public instruction. Let us every where, as well in the country districts, as now in the city of Providence, have such schools, school-houses, teachers, and supervision, that we may ourselves be proud of them, and the stranger and sojourner among us, shall be forced to acknowledge our superiority in all these respects to any thing among themselves at home. Let us welcome the twenty-five thousand children now capable of receiving the process of education to the pleasures and advantages of good schools and good books, and on the passing off of the generation now on the stage, let the census of the United States, and above all, let peace in our own borders, the security of property, the dignity and value of labor, the cheerfulness and happiness of every fireside and workshop in the State, proclaim, that there is not a child of suitable age who is not at school, or an inhabitant of the State who cannot read or write, or who has not access to a well selected library of good books.

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REPORTS OF SCHOOL COMMITTEES.

We shall devote this number of the Journal to a publication of several interesting Reports submitted by School Committees to their respective towns, in pursuance of the provision in paragraph thirteen of section V. of the "*Act relating to Public Schools*," making it the duty of School Committees to submit annually "a written or printed report to the town, at the annual town meeting when the School Committee is chosen, setting forth the doings of the Committee, and the condition and plans for the improvement of the public schools of their respective towns; which report, unless printed, shall be read in open town meeting."

Report of the School Committee of the Town of North Providence.

Submitted May 22. 1847.

The amount of money placed at the disposal of the Committee for the support of Public Schools, during the year ending on the first Monday in June, 1847, is as follows:

Received from the State appropriation,	$982.82
" " " Town "	1600.60
" " " Registry tax,	262.10
Total amount of School Money for the year,	$2854.92

This sum has been divided among the several districts, according to law.

The amount expended thus far during the year, amounts to $2777.24; leaving a balance of $77.68 still in the hands of the Town Treasurer. This small balance will however be entirely exhausted by those districts that have been keeping school during the present month, and whose bills have not yet been presented.

There are in this town 2120 children, according to the census taken

by the School Committee in October, 1816. The amount therefore received from all sources, and appropriated to public education in the town, during the past year, has been about one dollar and thirty-five cents to each child—a sum, in the opinion of the School Committee, manifestly inadequate to the educational wants of the Town.

It is true that the amount of money raised the past year, is larger than the amount of any previous year, but when compared with the increasing population of the Town, it will be found to be but little if any larger than formerly. Aside from the increase of population, the acknowledged importance of a good common school education, imperatively demands the appropriation of a much larger sum of money.

Not only in our own State, but all over New England, has an increasing interest been manifested in the common schools. They are regarded, and rightly regarded, as the great safeguard of our institutions, and their growing importance in the public mind, demands a proportionate outlay of means.

Within the past few years, the cause of education has received unusual attention in this State. It has enlisted the efforts of many of the best minds among us, and a marked improvement has been the result. Still this is but the beginning. These efforts must be followed up by liberal appropriations on the part of the various towns, or but little will be accomplished.

If it be true that "Ignorance is the parent of vice," we can hardly over estimate the importance of a generous outlay in behalf of public schools, and we feel sure, were this subjsct rightly viewed, that the citizens of this Town would not be satisfied with less than double the amount at present appropriated to them.

Your committee believe that the money expended in erecting poorly built and ill-contrived School-houses, and in employing incompetent teachers, is really worse than useless—worse, because in most respects we should be vastly better off with no school, than with such as are often found in our country districts. Were we unprovided with public instruction, the parents and guardians of youth would perhaps feel more fully the necessity of doing *something*, for the minds of those under their charge. When schools are provided at the public expense, the parents too often feel the responsibility removed from their shoulders, and placed upon the teacher. If the child *goes to school*, it is thought sufficient—no matter whether the teacher be competent, whether the associations connected with the school be pleasant and agreeable, and such as to render study attractive—no matter in fact, whether the child learns anything or not; one thing is certain, the child *goes to school*, (provided he does not play the truant) is out of the way for six or more hours every day, and little more is thought about the matter.

We say, therefore, that unless good school-houses are provided,—unless competent teachers are employed, and above all, unless the parents feel and manifest an interest in the schools, visit them, and see that their children are punctual and regular in their attendance,—that it is of very little use for the Town or State to furnish money to sustain free schools.

There are two or three things absolutely requisite to the proper expenditure of school money.

1st. A good school-house, pleasantly situated and well ventilated, so as to be cool in summer, and easily warmed in winter.

2d. A competent teacher; one who understands the business, and is fairly compensated for the services rendered.

3d. Regular and punctual attendance of the scholars. This is all-important to the success of any school. An irregular attendant can receive but little benefit from the very best teacher, and not only so, but the whole school is more or less injured by the irregularities of one or of a few. The time of the teacher is unnecessarily occupied with the tardy ones, and all are kept back in their studies. Could we duly impress parents with the importance of this matter, we feel sure they would apply the remedy. The very trifling causes which frequently keep children from school, might easily be obviated; and a little exertion on the part of parents, would cause the attendance to be punctual and regular. Without this no school can flourish. We might as well expect our children to grow up skillful and expert mechanics and artizans, by devoting a few weeks' time to the acquisition of their trade, as to expect them to reap any benefit from our schools without regular, persevering and punctual attendance.

4th. A continuance of the school during at least nine months in the year, and with as little change of teachers as possible.

5th. A visiting committee, whose duty it shall be to visit frequently all the schools in the town, and have the general supervision of the same. As this is a very arduous as well as a very necessary duty, and one requiring the devotion of much time, this committee should be compensated for their services.

With these things united, we hazard nothing in the assertion, that an expenditure in this Town of four or five thousand dollars, would be productive of more direct benefit than would result from the disbursement of three times the amount under our present arrangement.

It has been said by some, that our schools are no better now than formerly, when much less money was raised by the town. To this we reply, in the first place, that we do not in fact raise much, if any more money now, in proportion to the number of children, than formerly. The population of the Town, it must be remembered, is and has been rapidly increasing—so that a school tax of two thousand dollars now, is but little if any more than a tax of one thousand dollars a few years ago. In the second place we reply, that this Town does not now, and never has, since the free school system was established in it, raised a sufficient sum of money to secure really good schools.

In most of the districts, the schools have been kept about three months in summer and winter. Now it needs no argument to show, that a school kept six months continuously, will be productive of more than double the benefit which can possibly result from a school kept but three months. It is a great waste of money, and wretched economy, for any district to keep a *short* school. The benefit received is not at all adequate to the amount of money expended. No teacher, be he ever so competent, can in ten or twelve weeks do any more than *begin* to learn the children under his care. And then, just as he has fairly commenced his school, and has reduced to some sort of order, the chaotic materials of which it is composed—just as he has become acquainted with the vari-

ous characters and dispositions of the children under his charge, and has heard a few lessons—he leaves. The interval before school again commences is so long, that what little has been learned is nearly all forgotten, and the same ground has, by the next teacher, to be gone over.

THE AMOUNT OF MONEY NECESSARY TO BE RAISED,

should then, in the opinion of the Committee, be sufficient to enable each district to have a school under a good teacher, for at least nine months in the year. To accomplish this object with our present population, four thousand dollars is absolutely necessary, and whatever sum we raise less than this, will detract from the efficiency of our schools, and prevent the rising generation from receiving at our hands, those advantages which are their proper right.

The money received from the State, together with the probable receipts of the registry tax, will produce about thirteen hundred dollars; leaving twenty-seven hundred dollars to be raised by the Town, in order to carry on our schools with vigor and success.

The Committee have no wish to dictate to the Town in this matter, but being placed by their fellow citizens in the responsible office of Guardians of its educational interests, they would be false to themselves, did they do less than to state plainly their convictions.

It gives us pleasure to remark, that our fellow townsmen have shown themselves very willing to increase their school appropriation, and we trust that an additional tax of a few cents on every hundred dollars, will be cheerfully met, when it is to be applied to so good an object.

As a matter of encouragement, and to show that the committee are not at all extravagant in their ideas of the amount of money necessary to be raised, we will state, that more than seven-eights of the towns in the State of Massachusetts, raise by direct taxation, more money for their schools, than we receive from both Town and State appropriations—while there are but twelve towns (including the cities) in that large State, whose valuation of taxable property, or whose number of children is greater than our own; and in quite a number of towns with one-half as many children as we number, and with less than half the amount of taxable property that this town is possessed of, a larger amount is raised by direct tax for the support of their schools, than we appropriate to the same object, with the State to help us, and the avails of the registry tax into the bargain. We shall surely be shamed into doing something better, if no other cause will operate upon us.

It is also recommended that the Town authorise the School Committee to appoint either from their own number, or from the citizens at large, as may seem best, a

VISITING COMMITTEE,

of one, two, or three persons, who shall be paid by the Town for their services, (leaving the number and compensation at the discretion of the School Committee) and whose duty it shall be, acting under the direction of the School Committee, to visit all the free schools in the Town at the beginning and close of each term, and oftener if necessary—to compare their condition and progress—to make such suggestions to teachers and trustees as may be necessary—to examine the condition of the school-houses, &c., and to make a written report of the state of each free school

in the Town. We regard this matter as one of great importance to the best success of our free schools. The cost will be trifling in comparison with the benefit which the Town will receive.

Under the present arrangemnnt, each school is visited by a different member of the Committee, perhaps once or twice during the term. There is no opportunity for a comparison of the different schools, or different modes of teaching and government. Each school is nearly isolated from every other, and goes on year after year in the same routine, with very litte improvement. Let a committee be appointed for the express purpose, who shall be compensated for their services, and the schools will then be frequently visited—a uniformity of system established throughout the town—the most forward and best conducted schools can be made to stimulate and excite to greater exertion those which are less forward—the teachers will be more faithful and vigilant if their schools are frequently subject to examination by the visiting committee, and the scholars will be induced to better behavior and more studious habits, when the authority of the teacher is backed by their visits and influence. We should, in fact, regard the appointment of such a committee as a saving of money to the Town, because under their supervision, the school money might be made to go much farther than at present, and be more usefully applied.

The Committee are much pleased in being able to state, that during the past year an increased interest has been manifested in the public schools in nearly every district. In several, new and commodious school houses have been, or are being erected; in other districts the houses have been repaired or painted. With one or two exceptions the districts have shown a ready willingness to tax themselves for these purposes. Let this spirit be met by the town, let a liberal appropriation be made to the schools, and let a committee be appointed to see that the money is spent in the best manner, and we can have in this town as good schools as can be found in the city of Providence or any where else. In this matter we cannot, if we would, remain stationary; we shall inevitably go backward if we do not progress.

There are several other topics requiring notice at our hands, but which the limits of this report will forbid. We cannot however forbear saying a word in favor of the establishment of District School Libraries. The importance of good and useful books for children and youth to read, will be generally admitted. Many hours will be well spent if the good book is at hand, which would otherwise be wasted in idleness or something worse. A good district library can be obtained at a very small expense, and we hope that no district will long be without one.

In conclusion, let us express the hope that our fellow citizens will give the matters set forth in this report, the consideration which their importance demands. At our next annual Town Meeting, which occurs in a few days, they will again be called upon to make an appropriation for their free schools; and the School Committee have ordered that this report be printed and circulated throughout the Town, to help awaken an interest in the subject, and that all may be well informed and fully prepared to act upon this important question.

All of which is respectfully submitted by the School Committee of the Town of North Providence,

LEMUEL ANGELL, Chairman.

FIRST ANNUAL REPORT OF THE SCHOOL COMMITTEE OF SMITHFIELD.

Submitted June 8, 1847.

The school committee of the town, in accordance with the Act respecting public schools (Sec. V. ¶. 13,) have prepared and beg leave to present the following report:

The various topics to which your attention is invited may be noticed under the following heads:

I. What the school committee have done.
II. What the several districts have done and are doing.
III. What yet remains to be done, with suggestions for improvement.

I. What the School Committee have done.

The principal subjects to which the labors of the committee have been mainly directed are—visiting schools, examining teachers, prescribing rules and regulations for the general government of the schools, selecting and introducing a uniform system of books, locating school houses, examining plans and specifications of the same, altering the lines and settling the undefined bounds of school districts.

Visiting schools.—On entering upon the official duties of our appointment, we were early impressed with a sense of the high responsibility devolving upon us, as well as the vast amount of labor to be performed in the proper discharge of those duties in the superintendence of the public schools of this town.

The board of committee being composed of only three members, in charge of the schools of an extensive township, comprising thirty-six school districts, and rising of forty different schools, a large amount of labor must necessarily fall upon each individual of the committee, especially if the schools receive that attention even, which fulfills the mere letter of the law.

A large portion of the schools has two terms in the year; a summer term and a winter term, and each term of school generally has a different teacher, a male being usually employed in the winter and a female in the summer school.

In our forty schools then there are at least eighty school terms during the year and nearly as many different teachers; now the law requires that every teacher shall be examined, and that every school shall be visited by one or more of the committee "at least twice during each term of schooling, once within two weeks after the opening, and again within two weeks preceding the close of the school, at which visits, they shall examine the register of the teacher and other matters touching the school houses, library, studies, discipline, modes of teaching, and the improvement of the schools." And if these visits are conducted in such a way as to answer in any degree the intention of the law—in such a way as to be of any use in fact to the public schools of this town; they must of necessity demand much time and attention on the part of the committee.

The eighty school terms require one hundred and sixty visits; and no one of the committee could devote to this single duty sufficient time and labor to visit all the schools in town (to say nothing of his various other duties) without a total relinquishment of all other business.

And hence in contemplating the best means of fulfilling the requisi-

tions of the law—of accomplishing the greatest amount of labor, in a manner the most beneficial to the public schools, and at the same time regarding a prudent economy, it was found expedient to assign certain sections of the town, including a certain number of schools to each individual of the committee, who should have the more special charge of the schools in his respective jurisdiction. This plan however does not allow us to make a very accurate general comparison of the respective merits of the various schools in town; yet it was deemed the best course under present circumstances we could adopt. And in this way it is believed all the schools with very few exceptions have been visited according to law by some one member of the committee, and where exceptions occurred, they were generally in consequence of the committee not being apprized of the time when the school commenced or closed.

We have endeavored upon the whole to give the best attention to this important department of our labors, that circumstances would allow. The object of the committee in visiting schools has been, or ought to have been to improve their condition, to see that the public money set apart for the noble purpose of educating the people, has not been wasted—to institute as far as practicable at every visit a careful inquiry into every thing that affects the character and welfare of the schools—to make the peculiar management of the teacher in relation to those various duties he is bound to discharge—his example, discipline, government, methods of instruction and the nature of those influences this management is calculated to exert over the objects of his charge; to observe the outward deportment and the *moral* as well as intellectual improvement of the pupils, the manner in which they keep their books and desks, the neatness and order of the school-room, and grounds around the school-house, to encourage them to diligence and good behavior by exciting a laudable emulation in presenting worthy examples from other schools, and by arousing proper motives of action in holding up to their view the priceless advantages of a good education as the natural reward of persevering industry and meritorious conduct.

Examining teachers.—In regard to the examination and qualifications of teachers, it may be observed that we consider one of the first steps towards elevating the character of the public schools, is to raise the standard of qualifications in teachers, and hence, we have endeavored to be duly cautious in approbating individuals for the important charge of instructing our youth. And it is a pleasure to say that we have been rarely placed under the mortifying alternative of denying certificates to those whom we have examined.

Two or three instances of this kind however have occurred in the early part of the present school year; but since that time, we have not been troubled with any candidates, who could not sustain a fair, and, comparatively speaking, tolerably thorough examination. Although the teachers have, it is true, fallen far short in several instances of what would be desirable or ought to be expected, yet we are gratified in expressing our conviction that they have generally sustained an honorable character in the discharge of their respective duties. No instance having occurred within our knowledge where a single certificate has been annulled either for want of ability to teach and govern a school, or for want of satisfactory evidence of a good moral character.

The schools have been with scarcely an exception, continued through

the term for which the teacher was hired, and conducted with general satisfaction to the committee. And when teachers have manifested a peculiar tact in managing a school, or a special interest in the profession of teaching, we have recommended them to remain in town, and if possible to continue in the same school in order to secure the services of the best teachers and those especially who design to make teaching a permanent business.

Rules and Regulations.—In order to carry out the plans of the public school system and to promote the best interests of popular education, the law very justly requires the school committees of the several towns to "prescribe and cause to be put up, or furnished to each teacher a general system of rules and regulations for the admission and attendance of pupils, the classification, studies, books, discipline, and methods of instruction in the public schools."

To this part of our duty early attention was given; and such a system of rules was carefully drawn up and adopted as seemed best suited to our town, and best calculated to improve the condition of the public schools.

These rules have been furnished to every school in the town and have been received by teachers and trustees generally as we believe with much satisfaction, and their good effects already manifested by aiding the teacher in the faithful discharge of their responsible labors, and in establishing a more uniform and systematic course of discipline and instruction, are the best proofs of their adaptation to promote the object intended.

In order to insure co-operation on the part of the districts in carrying these regulations into effect, the committee at the same time issued a circular addressed to the trustees of every district, setting forth some prominent features of the law and urging several important points of duty.

Circular.—To the Trustees of School District No. —.

The Legislature of this state, by their recent act, have made it the duty of the School Committee of this town, among other things, "To prescribe and cause to be put up in each school House, or furnished to each teacher, a general system of rules and regulations, for the admission and attendance of pupils, the classification, studies, books, discipline, and methods of instruction in the public schools."

In fulfilling the duty enjoined upon us, we have drawn up a set of "rules and regulations," which we herewith send you, and we recommend that they be put into a cheap frame and hung up in a conspicuous place in the school house.

It will be seen that rules 2 and 19, imply that every school is furnished with a hand-bell and thermometer.

You will observe, by reference to the law, that no teacher can be employed who does not present a certificate, either from the Town Committee, or County Inspector, or the State Commissioner.

We would also call your attention to another portion of the law, Section V., ¶ 12, by which it will be seen that the committee are "To draw an order on the treasurer of the town, in favor of such districts only as shall have made return to them in matter and form required by said committee, or by the Commissioner of Public Schools, from which it shall appear, among other things, that for the year ending first of May previous, one or more public schools had been kept for at least four months by a teacher properly qualified, and in a school house approved by the committee, and the money designated "teachers' money," received from the treasurer of the town for the year previous, had been applied to the wages of teachers and for no other purpose whatever."

The law requires the town committee to visit all the schools, "At least twice each term, once within two weeks after the opening, and again within to weeks preceding

Introduction of Books.—The introduction of a uniform system of proper text books for the use of our schools formed the next subject of consideration. On examining the schools we found a great diversity of books in use, and often three or four different kinds on the same subject in the same school, and some of them ill adapted, as we thought, to the purposes for which they were used.

This necessarily produced much confusion in the classification of the schools, retarded the progress of the pupils, and caused great loss of time and labor on the part of the teachers.

After much time and labor devoted to the selection and examination of books, the following were recommended for adoption.

The Holy Bible, Webster's or Worcester's Dictionary, Russell's series of Reading Books, Morse's New School Geography, Colburn's Mental, and Thompson's Practical Arithmetic, Wells' School Grammar, Gallaudet's and Hooker's Spelling Book, Fowles' do., Town's Analysis and Definer, Wilson's History of the United States.

Many have a strong predilection for old books and old systems, while the expense of purchasing new ones before the old ones are worn out, affords if not a serious, at least a very plausible objection.

The latter difficulty however we were able to overcome successfully by making arrangements with the publishers of the above named books, to supply at a very great discount, all the schools in town with a sufficient number of books to furnish every scholar with an introductory copy of each kind needed.

And by employing agents or book dealers to receive and deliver them to the several school districts, without compensation or profit, we have been enabled to save much expense to parents and individuals of the town and to introduce into our public schools a uniform system of standard books at a price so extremely low that no one has pretended to complain of the expense.

About 600 Morse's Geographies, 700 Gallaudet's and Hooker's Spelling Books, and 2000 volumes of Russell's Reading Books, have already been distributed in the schools.

From the sale of these at the reduced prices a saving has been effected of $575, and on the Arithmetics, Grammars and other books of $125. Making an aggregate difference on the whole between the prices at which they were introduced and the usual retail prices of $700.

Those who at first seemed most prejudiced against a change, could not refuse to comply with the advice of the committee, when informed of the great sacrifice made on the prices of books for the purpose of introduc-

the close of the school." In order to do this, it is necessary that early information of the time of opening and closing the school should be given to the committee.

You will perceive the trustees also are required to visit the school in their own district twice in each term. And we would further recommend that the trustees invite and encourage parents, and others interested in education, to visit the schools in their respective districts, as often as possible.

The committee have devoted considerable time and attention to the examination and selection of books, and will soon be able to report a list of such as they recommend to be used in the public schools.

CHARLES HYDE,
JUNIA S. MOWRY,
JAMES BUSHEE,
} *School Committee of the Town of Smithfield.*

ing them; and the great importance of having a uniform system in all the schools, and especially in the same school, even if no higher object was to be obtained than the mere point of economy to the parents. Every new teacher on entering his school has hitherto exercised the right of gratifying his own views by recommending some favorite books.

Hence the diversity of text books has been multiplied to such an extent as to defeat all order of classification, and subject the parents to much unwarrantable expense. But when a permanent and uniform system of books is once established by the authority of the town, parents will no longer have just cause to complain of the expense and trouble of a continual change of class-books every three or six months, and teachers will no longer be subjected to the grievous perplexity of attempting to classify their schools with nearly as many different text books on the same subject as there are scholars in school.

Location of school-houses and boundaries of Districts.—The law requires the location of new school-houses and the plans and specification of the same to be approved by the school committee. This subject has occupied no inconsiderable share of our attention. When called by the contending parties of a district to settle differences of opinion and to locate their school-house, we have exercised our best judgment in the discharge of this duty, always keeping in view the general good of the district, and after obtaining by due examination all possible facts in the case, we have always endeavored to weigh these facts in the scale of candor and impartiality. But when a *tailor* can make *a* coat to fit every man's back in the district, then the committee can find *a spot* of land for a school-house that will suit every man's mind.

The geographical centre of the district, or the centre of the greatest amount of population may frequently be rendered by various circumstances a very unsuitable site even if the owners offered no objection.

Traces yet remain of the idea (and we are sorry to say it,) that a good decent piece of ground that will raise corn and potatoes is too *good* for a school-house,—that some gloomy, barren, rocky place, fit for nothing else is also sufficient for that purpose.

As regards the boundary lines of the several districts, we frequently found them too indefinite for the purpose of ascertaining the amount of taxable property justly belonging to each, and hence in those districts where a tax has been levied in order to build or repair school-houses, we have re-run the lines and defined the bounds more particularly.

We have also made such alterations in the lines of some other districts as the good of the schools would seem to require, always endeavoring to consolidate and enlarge small districts when practicable, believing this to be an important means of improving our schools. But the lines and bounds of many of the districts are still too indefinite for the convenience of fixing the valuation of the ratable estate; and it would in the opinion of the committee save much time and trouble if the districts were all accurately surveyed and their bounds determined, so that a correct map of the same may be drawn up for reference,—such a map it is believed would be of great utility.

II. What the districts have done.

Having presented you with a brief outline of the principal labors of the school committee, we would in the second place, call your attention

to what the several districts have done, in carrying forward the great work of improvement in the cause of general education. Many of the districts have not been wanting in a laudable zeal to better the condition of their public schools. Several new school houses have been erected within the past year, according to approved plans; and others are now in progress of building. Also some old ones have been efficiently repaired or at least undergone a very pleasing transmutation. The slab seats and old rubbish have been removed for neat and comfortable desks, and the dark and smoky walls festooned with cobwebs have been faithfully cleansed, and are now in some cases decorated with maps and charts offering means of useful instruction, and presenting an aspect far better calculated to suggest proper associations to the minds of youth, and to form the character of the rising generation for future usefulness and happiness.

Districts No. 1, No. 8 and No. 34, have built new houses in which their schools have been taught one term, although the fences and yards around them are yet incomplete.

Districts No. 9, No. 10, No. 12, No. 23, No. 30, No. 32, No. 33 and No. 36, are in progress of building, or at least have taken some action upon the subject.

Districts No. 4 and No. 25, have been repaired, No. 7, No. 18, No. 27 and No. 29, are in anxious expectation of repairing or furnishing some better accommodation for their schools.

The following summary gives a general idea of the appropriations which have been made and are about to be made for the purpose of building and repairing school-houses.

Expense of the three houses just erected,	$1200,00
Contemplated cost of the eight about to be erected,	9000,00
Sum expended in building and repairing previous to the present year and since 1843,	7000,00
Making an aggregate amount of,	$17,200,00

which has been expended in the erection of new buildings and in bettering the condition of old ones since those movements commenced, which have resulted in the present organization of our public schools.

The appropriations and expenditures for the support of public schools the year past are as follows:

Amount from the State, - - - - -	$2175,23
" raised by the town, - - - - -	2000,00
" of registry tax, - - - - -	629,02
Total,	$4804,25

Half of which was divided equally among thirty-six districts, making $66,72 to each, the other half being apportioned according to the average number of scholars in attendance the preceding year, making $1,66 to each scholar. In addition to this, particular districts and manufacturing companies have raised about $1100 for the support of their schools, making the whole appropriations nearly $6000.

The whole number of scholars registered 2160.

Average attendance 1534.

Average length of school term $5\frac{5}{8}$ months.

Average wages of teachers per month including board—males $27—females $17.

The amount of appropriation to each district and other matters respecting the individual schools are exhibited in the following,—

STATISTICAL TABLE.

Number of District.	Local Name.	School Houses, by whom owned.	Amount of Taxable Property in each District.	Amount paid to each District.	Amount raised by Districts or by Individuals.	No. of Schol's. Registered.	No. of Schol's. Average attendance.	Teach's. Males.	Teach's. Females.	Wages per month, including Board. M.	Wages per month, including Board. F.	No. terms experience as teachers in the same school. M.	No. terms experience as teachers in the same school. F.	No. terms experience of three months each in any school M.	No. terms experience of three months each in any school F.	Length of school term in months
1	Mansfield,	D.	$75,000	$91 62		26	15	M.		$20				16		4
2	Slatersville,	P.	300,000	236 04	$386 60	120	91	M.	F.	31	$19		24	5	72	12
3	Branch,	D.	110,000	148 06	20 50	65	50	M.	F	27	16		1		2	6
4	Union,	D	90,000	94 94	77 75	32	22		F.		18		2		80	5
5	Globe,	D.	135,000	209 82		124	82	M.	F.	28	12		2	5	4	6
6	Manville,	P.	115,000	199 52	325 00	102	82	M.		42		20		80		12
7		P	35,000	103 24		36	30	M.		30				5		4
8		D.	75,000	94 94		43	30	M.		20		1		3		4½
9	Sayles Hill,		85,000	108 22		27	22		F.		14		2		3	7½
10			35,000	91 62		21	16	M.		18				1		5
11		D.	60,000	113 20		30	18	M	F.	23	12	1		3	24	6½
12	Latham,		40,000	83 32		15	12		F.		14		2		1	5
13		P.	70,000	106 56		32	24	M.		24				21		4
14	Greenville,	D	300,000	149 72		86	53	M.		28		1		2		4
15	Sylves'r Mowry	D.	50,000	96 60		18	13		F.		18		1		16	7
16	Georgia Ville,	P.	60,000	143 08	73 53	67	54	M.		27		1		6		4
17	Allen's Fact'y,	P	100,000	133 12		46	35	M.		24		1		3		5½
18		P	50,000	116 52		22	20		F.		16		1		3	7
19		D	55,000	99 92		26	19		F.		16		1		4	4½
20		P	36,000	88 30		21	16	M.		28				3		3
21	Albion,	P.	130,000	149 72		72	56	M.		28		1		8		4½
22	Lime Rock,	P.	97,000	108 22	70 00	38	21		F		22		2		36	7
23	Arnold Town,		110,000	108 22		51	40		F.		22		1		24	3½
24	Central Falls,	D	250,000	244 34		172	128	M.	2F.	30			4	60	20	5½
25	Bernon,	P.	225,000	207 82	300 00	177	104	M.	2F.	26	18	1	2	2	10	9
26	Hamlet,	P.	80,000	133 12		54	32		F.		18		2		10	12
27	Sayles,	P.	30,000	93 28	2 50	20	15	M.	F	20	18	1	1	1	3	4
28	Sprague's,	P.	70,000	116 52		40	31		F		18		2		20	4
29	Angel,	P.	40,000	92 92		24	12	M.	F.	20	14	1	1	1	1	5
30	Lime Rock,		90,000	116 52	78 25	36	21		F.		20		3		14	5
31		P	55,000	106 50		20	16	M.		23		1		20		4½
32	Lonsdale,	P.	100,000	191 22	29 05	145	84	M.	F.	30	14	1	1	40	24	5
33	Valley Falls,	P	210,000	166 32	122 00	112	57	M.	F.	30	18	1	1		4	7½
34	Blackstone,	D	50,000	96 60		20	16	M.		30		1		40		4
35	Central Falls,	D	276,000	267 52	290 00	172	150	M.	2F.	40	16	8	2	96	24	9
36	Ashton,	P.	95,000	91 62		51	25		F.		18		1		3	4

Note. D. Districts, P. Proprietors.

It appears from the foregoing table that fifty different teachers have been employed in the town, 24 males and 26 females, that thirteen districts have employed males exclusively, that eleven have employed both male and female, the male teachers generally being engaged in the winter schools, and the female in the summer schools, that twelve districts have employed females exclusively both for their winter and summer schools.

Those winter schools taught by females have generally succeeded well, some of them indeed would not suffer in comparison with our best schools, taught by males, in good government and thorough instruction.

In many districts the schools are small and the scholars quite young and backward, and it appears to us that a *good* thorough female teacher is better adapted to these schools, and we would recommend trustees to employ females more generally in the winter schools, as we believe they would have as good schools at less expense, and of course would be able to continue the school a much longer time for the same money.

The districts have in many cases manifested a commendable disposition to co-operate with the town and State in order to carry out the spirit of the law.

The trustees have generally been careful in the selection of teachers, and have in not a few instances exhibited a deep interest in the improvement of the schools being always ready to comply with any suggestions of the committee in making such arrangements as would render the school-room more convenient, comfortable or pleasant, in supplying proper fixtures and furnishing necessary articles of apparatus—such as maps, globe, clock, thermometer, &c., without which no school-room is completely furnished.

And we think it can be safely said that the schools never have been at any former period in so good a condition as at the present time.

More system and order and better modes of teaching are evidently gaining ground.

The teachers express a greater interest in their pupils and the pupils in their turn show more respect to the teachers.

Without naming teachers or specifying schools we are happy to report that there have been some efficient, well regulated and thoroughly taught schools in our town the past year. And it is very apparent that a more elevated tone pervades the public mind, and that a decidedly increasing interest is manifested on the subject of education.

Several of the districts have liberally raised funds by rate bills, by tax, and by private munificence, in order to continue the school after the expenditures of the public money, especially in villages and manufacturing districts.

Thus in Slatersville, Bernon, Hamlet, Manville and Central Falls, the schools are continued throughout the year; and the manufacturing companies of these villages have come forward in the spirit of true liberality and advanced money in addition to the public appropriations to support good schools in their respective districts.

The present organization of our public school system has scarcely emerged from the cradle of existence—yet its soul-animating light which we fondly hope is destined soon to illuminate our land, is already beginning to cheer us with some faint and glimmering rays. Its happy results already appear in distant perspective, in the nnmerous indications of im-

provement every where witnessed around us, in the more effective means and better plans about to be carried into operation for the general diffusion of useful knowledge.

It seems to have aroused the slumbering energies of the people, and awakened a spirit of interest and inquiry in all classes of the community.

The subject of common schools and common school education is beginning to take a more prominent stand among the absorbing topics of the day; and is about to be supported by a more faithful hand and guarded by a more watchful eye.

Public opinion is beginning to attach a becoming respect to the profession of teaching, and calls for higher attainments in those who assume the sacred responsibility of that profession, while the law steps in to aid in the great work of elevating the character of our schools by requiring a satisfactory test of every teacher's qualifications before he can receive his charge. And the consequence is, that we have had better teachers and better schools. The teachers have generally been more careful to qualify themselves for their duties, and have manifested a greater degree of interest in the schools, and a more laudable ambition to sustain an honorable reputation in their calling.

If the interests of the schools are properly guarded by the officers appointed for that purpose, the teachers are well aware that any violation of trust on their part, would meet with its just rebuke, while on the other hand they are stimulated to exertion and to duty by an honest conviction that their faithful labors will eventually receive their merited reward.

A decided indication of improvement in our teachers and schools, as well as a more sound state of public sentiment in reference to this matter, is found in the fact that the compensation of teachers is advancing. This shows there is a demand for better teachers; and this demand is answered by *better* wages.

We cannot expect to have good schools until we have good teachers, and we cannot have good teachers without paying for their services.

The increasing interest manifested by parents is also a favorable assurance of the future prosperity of our schools

Some who have never been inside the district school-house where their children have been and are now being educated, or scarcely given the school a passing thought from one year to another, now begin to think that the professed object of the mighty public movements in our land, is commensurate with the importance of those movements—that the object is of no less moment than that of *educating* the rising generation for the great duties of life—of no less moment than that of raising a beacon light to guide the future destinies of their children, and the query returns home to their minds with fearful meaning, "*Why stand we here idle?*" Is there nothing for us to do? Is there no way to assist in carrying forward this great work? Can we do nothing for those who are doing so much for our children?

The answer is already implied in the fact that we have been occasionally gratified in our regular school visits, to meet some kind parents in the school room, listening to the exercises of a favorite son or daughter with an anxiety of countenance which bespoke the workings of the mind; and the same parents we have noticed enquiring of the teacher with deep

solicitude about the progress and general deportment of their children, and charging him to extend a watchful care over the *moral* conduct of that son or daughter, which was perhaps the only remaining hope of their declining years.

The teacher is cheered onward in his labors and encouraged to a more faithful discharge of his duties by this general interest on the part of the parents; and the pupils soon exhibit its favorable influence by a more implicit obedience to order and a more attentive application to study.

III. What remains to be done, and what ought to be done.

We would not persuade you that all is sunshine—there is yet a dark side to the picture. Notwithstanding the great improvement of our public schools, and the increasing interest manifested in the noble cause of *popular education*, there yet remains much to be done, a great work to be accomplished, before the schools approach to what they ought to be. Many of our schools are very defective; and we are not supplied throughout the town with good school houses, furnished inside and out with the necessary convenience and arrangements for the intellectual improvement and moral habits of the pupils. We are yet behind many of our neighboring towns in this respect.

A large number of the school houses are still in a miserable condition, and many of them at the same time owned by private individuals, or by companies, so that the districts do not consider themselves obligated to repair them, and could not in some cases find the rightful owners, or obtain a clear title, if they were disposed to purchase them. This places such districts in a very awkward dilemma, and throws a formidable barrier in the way of improvement. Other districts are yet without any houses at all, the schools being kept in private dwellings or in other buildings wholly unfit for the purpose. These districts, however we consider much more fortunately circumstanced than those having a poor school house, owned by nobody, and that same nobody obligated to keep it in repair, especially when a majority of the district think it folly to build a house so long as they already have one.

Out of thirty-six districts four have no school house, and twenty out of the remaining thirty-two occupy houses owned by individuals or corporations. It is justice, however, to say that some of the best school houses we have in town are among this number, and that the owners or proprietors are at the sole expense of keeping them in good repair for the benefit of the dirtrict where they are located.

It appears then, that only twelve districts, or one-third part of the whole, have houses of their own. Many of the houses are badly located, badly seated, too small on the ground, and too low studded, besides being wholly destitute of those external and internal arrangements which convenience and propriety require.

School houses should be constructed of ample dimensions, the size on the ground depending, of course, in particular cases, upon the number of scholars; but all houses should have high ceilings, with good ventilation, and proper means of supplying a sufficient quantity of pure air. This subject, though not generally appreciated, is too vastly important to be overlooked.

Every good school house, where boys and girls attend the same school, should have two separate yards, (one for the males and the other for the females,) of convenient extent for exercise and play grounds, with appropriate out buildings.

This arrangement would obviate the necessity of having two distinct recesses every half day, (one for the boys and the other for the girls,) and thus half an hour each day, or one-twelfth part of the whole term of schooling, which would be otherwise lost, might be saved. It would be economy then to the districts to have two yards, without reference to the great convenience to the teacher, and the moral influence upon the pupils. We ar very sorry to say that most of the districts are sadly deficient in this respect; many of them having no sort of yard or out buildings connected with them for the accommodation of the scholars; none of those conveniences which are so indispensable to the decency and good morals of the pupils, and which modesty would *blush* to be without. There are only three or four schools in the town yet furnished with appropriate yards and out buildings for both sexes. We hope, however, the new houses which have recently been built, and those about to be erected, will not long be wanting in these particulars.

Every school room should be furnished with the means of promoting those habits of neatness and order which good manners and the common decencies of civilized life require; with mats and scrapers for the pupils to clean the mud and dirt from their feet on entering the room; with wash-bowl, water-pail, and dipper; with brooms, dust-pan, and duster. Such habits belong to a good education as much as reading and writing; and how can they be acquired without suitable means to encourage them. The neater and better the school room and furniture are, the neater and better scholars will be disposed to keep them.

Again for the convenient management and proper instruction of a school, some fixtures and little articles of apparatus, such as have been mentioned, are very necessary in a school room.

A blackboard is indispensable in every school, and we are happy to say that all the schools in town are supplied, with only two exceptions. Outline maps and charts are very useful in teaching the principles of geography, a subject well adapted to scholars of nearly all ages and classes. A small globe is a very important article for the purpose of illustrating to the whole school, or to a class, the figure and motions of the earth. Geometrical solids and diagrams are highly needful for general illustrations.

Among the mere fixtures necessary to carry on the business of the school room, may be mentioned a hand-bell, clock, and thermometer.

After visiting a well regulated school, and observing the various uses of a hand-bell, it would be difficult to conceive how a teacher could get along without one. Nearly all the movements of the school are carried on by the use of the bell. It gives the signal for beginning and the signal for closing the school; the signal for order and stillness, and the signal for liberty and exercise. It calls the classes to recite, and excuses them when the recitations are over; and, in short, one-third part of the labor of talking is frequently saved by this little instrument, and many teachers know by sad experience, that a hand-bell is much cheaper than a pair of lungs.

A clock is a more necessary article in a school room than most people are aware; it is not only very convenient to the teacher, but highly useful to the scholars; it stands to them as a faithful sentinel, pointing out the precise time for recitation, counting the idle moments, and showing at a glance the number of minutes left to prepare their lessons. By it the pupils are constantly reminded of the rapid flight of those moments which make up days, years, and centuries, and which are perpetually bringing to a close those successive periods of time, when the pupils are to exhibit, to their honor or dishonor, the manner they have improved those moments. Thus the pupils are led to set a higher value on time, and conducted to habits of system and order in their studies.

A thermometer also should be in every well regulated school room. Aside from its utility in regulating the temperature, it is worth more to every school than the cost of it, as an article of apparatus for the purpose of showing what a thermometer is. An intelligent teacher might give the school many useful practical lessons by the aid of this little instrument. For example: He could explain the nature of the materials of which it is composed; the peculiar properties of that metalic fluid, mercury, with which it is filled; the effect of heat and cold in expanding and contracting different substances; the manner and principle of its construction; and the important uses to which it is applied.*

We regret to say that in nearly all these very necessary articles, our schools as a general thing are sadly deficient, there being but eleven schools out of forty in town, that have maps or charts of any kind, and six only that are furnished with a globe, clock, and thermometer, and not more than half the schools have even a hand-bell, yet the teacher gets along some way without it. When he wishes to call in the scholars, at noon or recess, he thumps upon the window, (which in many cases may be very easily rattled,) and if that does not answer, he mounts a neighboring wall or fence and shouts at the top of his voice, or if he would save his lungs, the necessary warning is given the scholars by *smartly beating* the door or side of the school house with a *cudgel.* All these methods we have witnessed.

Price of a hand-bell sufficient for school purposes may be from 75 cents to	$1 25
Price of clock,	2 50
Price of thermometer,	1 25
Total,	$5 00

The sum of five dollars, then, would furnish each school with these three important articles, and the expense of a globe, maps, &c., above mentioned, would not probably exceed twenty dollars. A very inconsiderable sum for a district to raise, compared with the great convenience and utility of these things, in conducting a school.

When a school is once supplied with these articles they will last for years, if properly taken care of, and as no school can be what it ought to

* An excellent kind of thermometer, and well adapted to schools, has been recently constructed expressly for the public schools in the city of Providence. They are sold at Pardon Miller's, Providence, R. I.

be without them, we sincerely hope that so large a proportion of our districts will not long be wanting in this respect.

After furnishing proper school houses and proper fixtures, we want *proper* teachers to occupy them. Although our teachers, it is believed, did themselves much credit as a body, the past year, still there is much room for improvement.

We wish to see a higher standard of qualification in those who instruct our public schools. We wish to see teachers better prepared generally in all respects to discharge the duties of their profession. We have not unfrequently been mortified on the examination of candidates to find them most deficient in those things they most needed to teach, in reading and orthography, in the elementary sounds of the letters, and in the first principles of the grammar of our language.

A teacher, so far as mere literary attainments are concerned, should in the first place have correct and definite ideas of those subjects he pretends to teach; and in the second place, he should possess the capacity of communicating those ideas to others. No teacher certainly can impart that knowledge to his pupils which he does not possess himself. If his own ideas are indistinct and confused, such will he convey to his pupils. And however clear his own ideas may be, if he does not possess the ability of imparting them to others he is unqualified to fill the station of teacher. In order to be properly prepared for his business he must have a peculiar tact of communicating, a faculty of arousing the attention and exciting an interest in his class, on whatever subject he attempts to teach. Many fail on this point; they seem to have ideas enough in their own heads, but cannot put them into the heads of others. They have no faculty of imparting knowledge in a manner to produce a proper impression upon the minds of their pupils. And hence a sort of dull monotony pervades the school; no life or animation in the classes; no mental energy and activity. The scholars could hardly tell whether they were reciting arithmetic or geography, and never know where their lesson begins or ends. The teacher's general manner, his every movement, and measured monotony, all tend to throw a sort of magnetic lethargy over the classes; a kind of morbid *spell* which they have no power to break. Such a person may make a good mesmerizer but a poor school teacher. His scholars are ever complaining of their misery in school and the perplexity of their studies.

One boy says, "*I have such a poor memory, I am so hard to learn, I never can see into my arithmetic.*"

Says another, "*My grammar is so dull and dry I shall never learn it, and may as well give it up.*"

Although the teacher may possess all other requisite qualifications, if wanting in this he never will succeed. He may be kind and amiable in his disposition, faithful to all the little points of duty, manifesting a deep interest in the school, and even laboring hard too for its welfare, yet he is not satisfied with his labor, something evidently is wrong; the parents think the fault is in their children, and the children think it is in their studies. But let another teacher take the same classes, and they seem transformed as if by magic into new creatures; you see different countenances, and hear different voices.

"*I begin to like arithmetic very well,*" says one. "*I did not think grammar could be so interesting,*" says another.

A teacher must study his profession. He should have a definite idea of the most approved methods of teaching and the best plans of conducting a school before attempting the work, yet how many are employed in our schools with little or no knowledge of these things.

Teaching is a profession, and it is as necessary for the person who engages in this profession to obtain a knowledge of it as it is for the Lawyer or Physician to obtain a knowledge of his.

When sick we send for a Physician who has been educated at least in the theory of his profession, who understands the nature of the disease and the remedies to be applied.

When we have a few dollars at stake in the law, we employ the best counsel we can obtain, never inquiring what he will *charge* for his services but whether he has thorough knowledge of his business and is qualified to plead our case.

While at the same time we place the destinies of our children whose plastic minds are to be trained for future usefulness and happiness, into the hands of persons entirely ignorant of their profession—without even any definite conception of what is implied in that comprehensive term *education*—without any just knowledge of the proper methods of moulding the youthful character and bringing out those faculties which it is the peculiar province of the teacher to develope.

Not every person is fitted for a teacher though he may be thoroughly versed in all the subjects, he wishes to teach—and understand the best modes and plans of teaching yet if he does not possess those *natural* qualifications which renders the employment of teaching a pleasing and delightful one he is still without those requisites essentially necessary to a successful teacher. If a teacher does not like his profession, if he is not interested in the subject or science to be taught, and in the business of teaching, he never can interest those to whom he is engaged in imparting knowledge. It has become a proverb and none is more true, that a teacher above all others should have a due share of *common sense*, which implies a nicety of discernment in marking the injunctions of right and duty in all his various relations to the business of teaching and a discriminating judgment in executing those injunctions. Perhaps no employment of life more frequently requires a judicious exercise of this faculty than that of the teacher.

The school room is constantly presenting new cases never before tried where the reason and common sense of the teacher are the sole judge and jurors.

When a teacher has so many different instruments to tune—so many different strings to play upon, he must be extremely careful not to touch an unhappy note, and thereby produce a harsh and discordant sound that may ring in his ears and haunt him for months afterward.

A teacher should ever maintain that equanimity of mind and dignity of character becoming his station, never descending below his business or rising above himself.

His whole conduct should always be consistent with itself, never permitting the effect of precept to be destroyed by the force of contradictory example

If he enjoins punctuality in his pupils he must set the example. If the teaches his pupils the propriety of being prepared to recite punctually at such a time he must be as punctual to hear them at that time.

If he inculcates the virtues of kindness and good will towards each other while he acts the part of a tyrant towards them, his example conradicts his precepts.

If he teaches his pupils the importance of controling their passions and cultivating a kind and amiable disposition, wh le he suffers his own passions to usurp the throne of reason, and laying aside the dignity of the teacher allows himself to be seen storming and blustering in the school room, his example destroys the influence of his precept.

His character and reputation in society should be without blemish, having a sacred regard to truth and virtue, with a deep sense of his moral accountability.

He should be polite and affable in his manners, correct in his language, chaste in his conversation, and dignified in his deportment.

Such are a few of the qualifications desirable in those who are to fill the high and responsible station of the teacher.

The subject affords an ample and interesting field for remark, but this would extend it far beyound the design or proper limits of this report.

It is hoped however these few suggestions will induce parents and trustees to think more deeply upon this subject and to place a higher degree of importance in the proper qualification of teachers, as one of the most effectul means of producing a radical improvement in the condition of our public schools.

When we consider what a powerful influence for good or for evil, a teache· may exert over that little community of plastic minds under his charge—when we consider what a slight incident often gives that peculiar turn to the mind of a child which determines his course in life—the every word and action of the teacher affects the balance of right or wrong—that the pupils are constantly receiving by precept and example ideas and impressions from those to whom they look up for instruction—and that these impressions will remain in bold relief pointing to the right or to the left and guiding their conduct in after years—we may earnestly inquire then what sort of persons ought they to be who should assume the sacred responsibility of performing this great work o conducting the rising generation in the paths of virtue, usefulness and happiness. And it may be asked how shall we supply our schools with such teachers.

This is a work of time and labor, and as we believe cannot be done at once, but may be done sometime. It is a work in which all who feel an interest in the welfare and prosperity of our schools should unite their efforts.

One important means of accomplishing the object is to have good school houses pleasantly located and well furnished. Another means is to raise the compensation of teachers, thus holding out inducements for more talent and better qualifications.

If other towns around us have better school houses and pay higher

wages than we do they will get all the good teachers, and we shall have to take those they turn away.

Much depends also upon the efficiency of the school committee in carrying out the plans for the improvement of the schools. Persons should be chosen to that office who can devote time and labor to the business,—who feel a deep interest in the prosperity of the public schools, and will enter into the work with a firm determination of purpose. They ought to feel that the true relation in which they stand to these institutions is of a high and responsible character; and no consideration whatever should induce them to barter their trust. They should ever act with a conscientious regard to the great interests of the schools, independent of sect or party, friendship or relationship, never permitting sinister motives or local prejudices to wave their sense of justice.

With the committee rests the responsibility in a great degree of answering for the manner in which the time and money appropriated for the benefit of public schools are expended.

If the committee neglect to carry out the spirit of the law in the examination of teachers, in visiting schools, and in their various other duties—the best legislation, and the best public school system in the world degenerate into a mere farce, and all the time, labor and money would be worse than thrown away.

A general want of interest on the part of the committee and trustees, induce, a sort of cold indifference in the public mind upon the subject of education; and let this state once pervade the community, and we are on the retrograde march from civilization to barbarism, and those institutions for the diffusion of general knowledge which ought to be the pride of this republic and the guardians of its virtue, become the nurseries of vice and immorality—ignorance, folly, and crime, take the place of virtue, intelligence and prosperity,—and the very means designed to make us a wise and happy people would prove by neglect, *unpardonable neglect*, the instruments of our ruin.

The superintendence of the public schools and the proper expenditure of the public funds, in a way that shall meet the expectation of the town, and of individuals who have signified the deepest interest in the cause of education by their liberal appropriations—in a manner that shall satisfy the reasonable anticipations of our Commissioner and answer the great ends for which the public school system was instituted—requires the most vigilant attention on the part of the school committee.

No matter what liberality may be bestowed in the cause, no matter what amount of funds raised for the support of schools—unless the whole has a faithful and judicious oversight, the grand object will be defeated.

But let these appropriations be made to subserve the great object intended and clearly implied in the spirit of the law, and they become a rich and profitable investment.

It is cheaper to build school houses than alms houses. It is cheaper to support good schools than to support that ignorance, poverty and crime which inevitably follow a neglect of a proper education. The prosperity of our schools is inseparably connected with the dearest rights and privileges of our country. The diffusion of general knowledge among

all classes of society through the medium of common schools is the only safeguard of our republic.

Those very children now enjoying the privileges of our public schools and looking up to us as the guardians of their education, will soon be called to fill the highest functions of the nation. And let it be remembered that it depends upon those who now fill these functions to say how well qualified the next generation shall be to take their places. When we consider the various faculties to be developed, and the vast amount of talent to be called into action in the fifteen hundred children now in our public schools, and that the solemn duty of giving a proper direction to this talent devolves upon us, how can we betray so sacred a trust? When we consider how many noble statues are hidden in that rude quarry of two thousand minds, which the polishing hand of education may bring out and the awful truth forces itself upon us *that we are to say whether they shall there remain or whether they shall stand forth as ever enduring* MONUMENTS *of their country's honor!*—how long shall we bask in the sunshine of indifference? What labors are too great, what sacrifices too dear to make in obtaining the invaluable prize?

Let all parties be engaged in carrying forward this glorious work; let the town and districts, the committee and trustees, independent of local prejudices or party feeling, unite in this common cause, and our public schools would soon be what they ought in justice to be, the pride and ornament of the town, where the high and the low, the rich and the poor, are seen mingling in the enjoyment of the same privileges, and partaking of the same blessings.

And all the time and money expended in rearing the high standard of common school education would be returned *ten fold* in the virtue and intelligence of the people, in all the essential elements of a happy and prosperous community. Each school being a beautiful miniature illustration of the genius of our republican institutions, whose government holds out the same privileges to all, making no distinctions of rank, and acknowledging no titles but virtue and talent, and these constituting her only passports to honor and trust.

We look forward with hopeful anticipations to the time when the spirit of our public school system shall be completely carried out, when the most sanguine hopes of the friends of popular education shall be fully realized, and when the state of *Rhode Island*, though "*small in territory*," shall be great in her public schools—when she shall occupy the first place among her sister states in the work of education, and when the town of *Smithfield* shall occupy the first place among her sister towns.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

C. HYDE,
JAMES BUSHEE,
AHAZ MOWRY,
} *School Committee of the Town.*

Smithfield June 8, 1847.

[The Rules and Regulations referred to in the above Report will be found on page 290 of this volume of the Journal.—ED.]

REPORT OF THE SCHOOL COMMITTEE OF CUMBERLAND, R. I. FOR 1847.

The undersigned, in behalf of the School Committee of Cumberland would respectfully report to the town, as by law required—"The doings of the committee, and the condition, and plans for the improvement of the public schools" of the town.

It affords us much pleasure to say, as we can in general terms, that there is among the people of this town, a commendable and growing *interest* in the cause of popular education, and this interest is followed as a matter of course by a corresponding improvement in the condition of the schools. "Where there is a will, there is a way;" and parents have the will to do whenever they perceive the *necessity* of doing.

But waiving this course of remarks for the present, we proceed to lay before you,

I. The doings of the Committee.

We have held seven sessions, during the year: and being called to act under the new school-law, with the details of which we were not practically familiar, it will not perhaps, be thought strange, that our progress in the matter of organization, has been slow, nor that it has been characterized by imperfections, which longer experience would have avoided. But we have done what we could, and hope our labors may not prove unavailing.

A code of "regulations" for the schools has been published by the committee, and it is believed they have been put up in every school house in the town. Though they are doubtless capable of being improved; yet such as they are, they have evidently contributed not a little to the present prosperous condition of the schools. "Order is Heaven's first law," and when committees, parents and teachers combine, to enforce wholesome rules for the government of pupils, and for the care of district property, success is morally certain.

The matter of determining what books shall be used in the schools, devolves, by law, upon the school committee. The design is to secure uniformity in the town, and, as far as practicable, in towns adjoining each other. To promote this object on the largest convenient scale, an early effort was made to confer with the school committee of Smithfield; but after some unsuccessful attempts to agree, and the repeated postponement of the subject, by the committee of conference, it was judged best, considering the necessities of our schools, to proceed without farther delay. Accordingly, Swan's series of reading books takes the place of Angell's, while Smith's Grammar, Arithmetic and Geography, and Webster's Spelling Book, have been retained. To these, we have added—Mitchell's Primary Geography, Colburn's Arithmetic and Town's Analysis. No action has been had in relation to a book on history; for as very few teachers were prepared, to give instruction in that branch of study, the past year, it was thought best to leave the decision of that matter to our successors in office.*

It is gratifying to know that the books prescribed by the committee, have been adopted with a praise worthy readiness by all the districts

* Willard's United States has been since adopted.

save *one*, and that all the children attending school, with perhaps a very *few* exceptions, have been supplied. In this respect, our schools have never been in so good a condition, as at present. A moment's reflection is sufficient to satisfy every thinking mind, that a bookless child can no more receive his share of the benefits of school, than a mechanic can profit by his trade, without being allowed the use of his tools. It may also be remarked that in the schools, generally, there has been a decided improvement, in the essential elements of good reading. This is owing, in a good degree, we think, to the excellent reading books, before mentioned, which have stimulated both teachers and pupils to special efforts in this important branch of education.

Twelve of the teachers employed the past year have been examined and approbated by the committee. The remainder have taught under authority from certificates granted by our predecessors, or by county inspectors. We have endeavored to make thorough examinations in all the branches to be taught; but we have sometimes granted certificates, where we have not been perfectly satisfied with the qualifications, because it seemed the best we could do under the circumstances. It was not a choice between the applicant and one of superior endowments; but between one of medium acquirements, and none at all. A supply of well qualified teachers cannot be expected, until the pay they receive, corresponds with the expense of preparation, and the amount of labor required, in comparison with other callings and professions. In justice to the committee of examination, it should be stated, that they have frankly expressed their opinion to candidates of doubtful qualifications, and assured them, that unless they should improve considerably, their certificates would not probably be renewed another year. We have been anxious to keep alive the impression, that *old* certificates are no pledges of *new* ones; and that hence persons must keep pace with the times in order to receive encouragement as teachers.

Having made these general remarks upon the "doings of the committee," we now ask attention to some statements in relation to

II. The Condition of the Schools.

There are twenty districts in the town, and these are divided into three "visiting districts," so called, which during the past year, have been under the special supervision of N. C. Dana, D. M. Cargell, and J. Boyden, Jr. respectively, as a visiting committee; each of whom is responsible for the statistics and remarks in relation to his own district. But we must premise in the beginning, that from the want of a proper understanding of what was required, the reports of some of the schools will be deficient in essential particulars.

District No. 1. The school in this district, has been under charge of Mr. Harvey Holmes, an excellent teacher, who by patient perseverance, has brought it into a good condition. Owing, probably to the mixed character of the population, there has been a vast difference between the registered and the average attendance. Yet with this serious disadvantage, the school has made good progress. It should be mentioned to the credit of the teacher and his patrons, that Mr. H. has been the only teacher of this school, for the last three years. It is generally, a waste of money time and talent, to change teachers, while you are

prospering under the one you have. A new one cannot often go on with the school, according to the plans of his predecessor, and must, therefore, spend much time in *organizing*, which the previous one would have occupied in straight-forward progress. He has to study the scholars more than they will study their books, in order to adapt his government and instructions to their temperaments and capacities. With him the soil is practically uncultivated, while with the other, it is already prepared to receive the seed.

District No. 2. Mrs M. Bugbee has long been the teacher of this school, and is regarded by the committee and many others, as belonging to the first class of teachers. During the past year she has had a devoted assistant in Miss Ann M. Smith, and under their united efforts, encouraged by the co-operation and sympathy of the parents generally, the school has taken a high rank. In no school of its size, have we found equal order, and in none have milder means been used.

District No. 3. This school was taught successfully, a short time in the summer, by Miss Lucetta Dustan; but its principal term was in the winter, under the charge of Mr. Zimri Cook. Without resorting to corporal punishment, this teacher maintained excellent order, and the progress of the scholars, was equal to every reasonable expectation.

District No. 4. In this district there have been two terms, during both of which, Miss Sylvia A. Buxton, was the teacher. The school was too small to furnish the needed stimulas for either teacher or scholar. Yet good progress was made by the school generally, and the quietness and order that prevailed, made the different interviews pleasant to the visiting committee.

District No. 5. This is another small school. It constitutes with the five following, the visiting district of Mr. D. M. Cargell. From a somewhat minute detail of the several examinations we judge this school worthy of a good degree of commendation, and the committee says, at the conclusion of his report—"there is good improvement in it." Miss Abby H. Crowningshield was the teacher.

District No. 6. Miss Ruth A. Weatherhead, teacher. At the first examination of this school 36 scholars were present; but at the close, the number had dwindled to 20, by reason of sickness. Under these circumstances we ought not to expect much; yet the school was "well governed, and made good progress."

District No. 7. This school was taught in the summer, by Miss Weatherhead, and in the winter by Mr. Benjamin Whipple. Both of them kept good order; but as they both failed to notify the committee when their terms would close respectively, they were visited but once each, and hence we have no report of their success in teaching.

District No. 8. Sickness made serious inroads upon this school, reducing the number from 30 to 10. Mr. J. C. Whiting, the teacher, is a workman, and a working-man,—a devoted and successful teacher, and of course his scholars made rapid advancement.

District No. 9. Of this school the committee has furnished a detail of recitations; but has offered no oppinion upon its general merits. Some classes are represented as familiar with their studies, while others were better versed in theory than practice—an error not uncommon. Common report, however, gives a favorable impression of the teacher, Miss Elizabeth P. Woodward.

District No. 10. The committee reports the number of scholars in this school, to have been 30 at the beginning, and 13 at the close, and remarks that on this account, "the school did not appear as well, as at the first examination." Miss Bernice A. May, was the teacher.

District No. 11. This school, together with Nos. 12, 13, 14, 15, and 18, belongs to the visiting district of Mr N. C. Dana. It was taught in the summer by Miss Uranah M. Wakefield, and the committee after speaking of the miserable condition of the school room, says—"the school would not compare very unfavorably, with other schools in his visiting district." In the winter, it was in charge of Mr. Jason Newell, "a young man who has never taught, before, I think, and who will probably improve as he grows older."

District No. 12. "Mr. Jonathan Chase, the teacher of this school has not enjoyed good health. The school has been rather large and noisy, and some of the boys, somewhat turbulent. Yet there has been very fair improvement made, and the teacher, no doubt endeavored to discharge his duty faithfully."

District No. 13. This school is divided into a primary and secondary department. Miss Lydia B. Arnold has had charge of the former, and has given very great satisfaction, generally, to those who have patronized or visited her. Of the teacher in the secondary department, Mr. Dana says—"Mr. Ross is, in my opinion, an able teacher, has a happy faculty of imparting instruction, and the school under his direction has made rapid improvement."

District No. 14. Miss Emeline Ingraham has been the teacher in this school for several terms, and is represented by the committee as being "a faithful and accomplished teacher, and the scholars have made very fair improvement in their studies."

District No. 15. Miss Minerva A. Fry has been the teacher in this school. Mr. Dana says—"I have no hesitation in saying that in my opinion, she is worthy of public confidence as a teacher.

District No. 16. Miss Fry has been, and still is the teacher in this district also. I can cheerfully endorse the foregoing commendation, and add, that her school ranks among the best regulated schools in the town. It was taught awhile, last winter, by Mr. Welcome J. Ballou, but with little success, and was abruptly closed without giving the committee notice.

District No. 17. Miss Jerusha L. Roys taught this school the past season, and has already commenced another term, a circumstance, which of itself bears favorable testimony to her capacity as a teacher; and from an acquaintance with her mode of governing and instructing the young, we think her re-engagement reflects honor upon the district, also.

District No. 18. "Miss Bernice A. May who has taught the school in this district the past season, is an experienced teacher, and I believe, (says the committee) has discharged her duty faithfully, and to the best of her ability, and the scholars have made respectable improvement."

District No 19. This is one of the largest schools in town and, probably, one of the most difficult to manage. Mr. D. M. Cargell, assisted by Miss Eunice P. Daniels, has been the teacher. It gives us pleasure, to bear testimony to the fidelity and devotedness of these teachers, and we can only regret that a corresponding success did not crown their efforts. We believe they would do well, in schools compos-

ed of different materials; but a peculiar faculty is required, to succeed in such a place as Woonsocket.

District No. 20. This, also, is a Woonsocket school; and the teacher, Mr. Henry D. Smith is entitled to the influence of this consideration, in judging of his success. We are of the opinion, that greater thoroughness in teaching is required, as also, that kind of government, which inspires the pupil with true respect for the teacher. Mr. Smith has a very active and efficient assistant, in the person of Miss Helen M. Rayner.

The average attendance, during the whole time in which the schools have been kept, will not vary much from 900 scholars, with a registered attendance of over 1200.

It appears that eleven of the districts have employed male teachers some portion of the time, at an average salary of $26,97, per month; while seventeen districts have employed females, including the assistants, at an average salary of $14,96, per month. With these facts before us, it becomes a question of considerable importance, how far it is best to carry the matter of employing females, both in summer and winter. The school committee of the neighboring town of Wrentham, in their report under date of April, 1847, recommend the employment of females more generally in the winter schools. This they do, from two considerations. First, because it is economical, and second, because of their superior aptness to teach. This opinion is confirmed by other men of extensive observation; and as it accords so well with our own, made up from personal examinations, somewhat extended, we beg leave to cite one or two testimonies.

Rev. T. H. Gallaudet, of Hartford Ct., author of an excellent spelling book, says—"It is proved abundantly, by actual experience, that our district schools can be taught and governed well by female teachers of the right character and qualifications, in the winter as well as in the summer, and while lads and young men of eighteen and twenty years of age attend them." See Conn. C. S. Journal 1839. In the same vol. p. 167, Mr. Barnard, (our present Commissioner) in his "Report to the Commissioners of common schools," says—"I have no hesitation in saying, that in the schools which I have visited, the female teachers were as well qualified, as devoted to their duties, and really advanced their pupils as far as the same number of male teachers."

Of course, great care should be taken, "to provide those that are fully competent,"* and trustees would do well not to employ strangers, even though they may have *certificates*, unless those certificates affirm *their success in practice*. A man may answer questions, without being qualified to teach, or govern; and though he fails in both, he may present his recommendation to strangers and if they require nothing more, they will be likely to suffer from his presumption. And hence, trustees would

* There are a few who think a woman cannot govern large boys, and they prefer a male teacher. But it is a general truth, that large boys, who are *well governed at home*, can be easily managed at school. Parental co-operation with the teacher, is all that is usually needed in such cases, and it seems to be a severe tax on a district, to oblige them to pay nearly a double price, merely, for the sake of governing two or three unruly boys, and thus relieving the parents of their responsibility. If they cannot teach them to respect a female teacher, enough to obey her reasonable requirement, they have made a sorry beginning in the education of their children.

do well, to examine the printed reports of school committees, as being much better, than a mere certificate based on a questioning examination.

We now pass to suggest a few considerations, in relation to the

III. Improvement of the Public Schools.

School houses first claim attention. It may be safely premised, that a good school house is indispensable to the perfect operation of our public school system. It is necessary both for the teacher and pupil. It contributes to their health, virtue and happiness, and promotes order, diligence, neatness and taste. We seek to make our dwelling houses, churches and even our *Town* houses, comfortable; and why should the school house be an exception? Let the places, where the minds of our youth receive so many life-lasting impressions, be made comfortable and inviting, and it will do much towards securing more regular and punctual attendance.

In the various districts of this town, there have been expended, for building and repairing school houses during the last ten years, including the appropriations for the current year, about $17,000. We look upon this fact as denoting progress, and we hail it as a harbinger of better times, still to come. But lest we should fall into an ancient error, of making the "outside of the cup and the platter, clean," to the neglect of the interior, we will call attention to two or three cases, as indicating what is needed most at the present time.

In district No. 3 they have a good house, in first-rate repair; but very uncomfortable for the scholars. If we except the little ones that sit on the front seats, not a scholar can touch the floor with his feet, while sitting in a proper position. The height of a common chair is about 17 inches; but many of these seats are considerably higher, besides being narrow, with a straight, perpendicular back! We verily believe, if the parents were obliged to sit on them for one week under the eye of an order-loving teacher, they would at once vote the much needed alterations. We are happy to say, that in other respects, this district deserves much commendation. It has furnished the highest amount of average attendance of any school in town, the past winter, and we hope the house will take rank in the first class, ere another annual report is made.

Of the school house in No. 11 Mr. Dana writes—The seats are high narrow and hard—the floor has a steep ascent from the aisles to the walls—and what makes this school room more uncomfortable than usual, is, that there is running completely round the room, a sharp moulding, that comes just below the shoulder blades of those sitting on the back seats. Similar remarks are true of the house in No. 17. Some of the children are obliged to rest their feet on sticks of wood, while others lay them up on the seat, or lie down, or sustain their positions, by bracing with the knees against the desks. But we are glad to hear that the district has already voted to re-arrange the desks and seats the present season. Several other houses need similar changes, but as in several instances, they have begun to move in the matter of building or repairing, we will specify no more.

The four districts in Woonsocket, have voted to unite their efforts, and erect a house for a secondary or high school. They have generously appropriated $5000 for that purpose, and Edward Harris, Esq., has given a lot 150 by 300 ft. beautifully located for that purpose, for which he is

entitled to, and will receive the gratitude of the friends of education for many years to come.

Every school house ought, if possible, to be enclosed by a tight fence—the yard divided so that the whole school may have a recess at the same time: and no consideration whatever should leave them without the necessary out-buildings. We do not learn that any district, save Nos. 9 and 10, are deficient in this last particular, and as one is soon to be erected (if not already done) in No. 10, we hope the other will not long stand alone. As to internal arrangements, we would suggest that the desks and seats should stand on a level floor, facing the teacher—that there should be a platform running across the room, for him, and a blackboard running entirely around it. The room should be ventilated by dropping the windows and by an opening into the attic, from whence the vitiated atmosphere may escape by a window or some other opening. A school house should be painted without and within, and if, to this we add, scrapers, mats &c. there will be little danger that scholars will mar the property of the district, for they will find little to nourish this propensity into activity.

We would earnestly reccommend the purchase of Mitchell's Outline Maps, for the school rooms. Five of the districts have already done so and none see cause to repent it. They will cost some fourteen dollars, and from them, the whole school with very little time and labor, may gather much useful knowledge of geography. One district, (No. 13.) has appropriated seventy five dollars for Maps, Globes, and other apparatus—a good example for others to follow.

The new school act authorizes the districts to tax the scholar, not to exceed one dollar per term of three months. This has been tried in several instances, and operates well. It recognizes the principle that we value things much by what they *cost* us. The prosperity of our schools is secure, when the people realize their *worth*, and this they will be likely to do, as the draft reaches the purse. The influence of this law will undoubtedly be, to increase the attendance of the scholars, and the interest of the people, and at the same time to increase the length of the school term.

Finally, we would express the hope, that the people of this town will be as ready to meet the wants of the times in the future, as they have been in the past. From 1828, to 1839 inclusive, with a population of about 3690, the town raised $500 for the public schools, annually; from 1840 to 1843, the amount was $800; in 1844 it was $1000, and since that time, it has stood at $1200. The population is now, probably, about 7000. The account for the past year will stand thus.

Balance on old accounts. May 1846,	$296,76
Received from the State,	1168,15
Voted by the Town 1846,	1200,00
Registry taxes,	204,32
Total,	2869,23

This sum, after deducting the balance on accounts, was divided—one half among the districts equally, and the other half, according to the average attendance of last year. And the amount of disbursements, is $2745,64, leaving a small balance in the treasury, in favor of the dis-

tricts. In conclusion, the question forces itself upon us—are we not ready to increase our annual appropriation for the benefit of our children? What can we do for them of equal value, at so little cost? If, as our patriot fathers said—a republican government must rest on the *virtue* and *intelligence* of the people, what can so directly promote this end as public schools—the *colleges* of the people? Let us not pause in our efforts for improvement till we shall have made the schools of Cumberland, "*good* enough for the richest, and cheap enough for the poorest." Respectfully submitted,

By order of the Committee, JOHN BOYDEN Jr.

NAMES OF THE COMMITTEE FOR 1846–47.

ARIEL BALLOU, *Chairman.* JOHN BOYDEN Jr. *Secretary.* N. C. DANA. ADDISON KNIGHT. D. M. CARGELL. LEVI T. BALLOU.

REPORT OF THE SCHOOL COMMITTEE, OF SCITUATE, R. I. FOR 1847.

In accordance with the law, the School Committee of the town of Scituate present the following report:

Entering upon business, for the most part new to them, and acting under a new law, without the guidance of established usage, your committee have found it far from an easy task to discharge their responsibilities to the acceptance of all, or the satisfaction of themselves. Theirs, however, is the consolation of having endeavored to do their duty.

One of the duties devolved on the committee is to establish the boundaries of the districts. We have accordingly fixed those of districts Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, 8, 11, and 15, and of consequence, parts of the boundaries of Nos. 5, 7, 9, 10, 12, and 13. In this part of their work your committee have had constant reference to the original limits of the districts, making changes only when desired, or where long established use authorized them.

Boundaries have been run chiefly by the lines of farms, taking into a district the property of those living in it, as far as it could be done, without encroaching on the rights of adjoining districts. It has been the design of the committee to give all concerned opportunity to be heard, before settling the bounds.

Your committee have fixed the location of school houses in Nos. 2, 9, and 15. They have also approved of the plan of the new houses in Nos. 2 and 15, and of the remodeling of the houses in Nos. 2, 4, 6, 8, and 11.

Nos. 9 and 13, it is understood, are about to build. Nos. 1, 3, 12, and 14, it is believed, will remodel their houses or build soon.

The public money the past year amounts to $1,572 20 viz:

From the state, July 1846, - - - - -	$963 16
" " town, - - - - - -	321 06
" " registry tax, - - - - -	287 98

This has been apportioned to the several districts according to law, viz: one-half of the state appropriation, $481 58, according to the average daily attendance, the remaining $1,090 62 equally to each district. [We omit a very valuable Table.]

The number of teachers examined and approved by the committee during the year, is *twenty-four*. Some of these have not taught in this town, and some who have taught here, had their certificates from other sources.

The following books have been approved by the Committee for the use of the schools in this town: The Bible, or Testament. Worcester's Comprehensive Dictionary. Gallaudet's Practical Spelling Book. Fowle's Common School Speller. Swan's Primary School Reader, part 2d. Russell's Primary Reader, Sequel to do., Introduction to American School Reader, American School Reader, Young Ladies Elocutionary Reader. Gallaudet's Illustrative Definer. Wells' Grammar. Morse's School Geography. Woodbridge's Modern School Geography. Mitchell's Outline Maps. Wilson's History of the United States. Colburn's First Lessons in [Mental] Arithmetic. Thompson's Written Arithmetic.

Your committee have visited the schools to the extent of their power, making in all about fifty visits.

The schools have made commendable progress in their studies; some, however, have advanced much more rapidly than others. It might seem invidious to be more definite on this point, especially as some have had so much the advantage of others, in important particulars, viz: rooms, apparatus, and constancy of schools; in which, it may be hoped, there will hereafter be greater uniformity.

Your committee are fully convinced that the examination of teachers should be increasingly strict; they are persuaded, also, that experience is one of the best qualifications for a teacher. In no department of human action is it so important to serve an apprenticeship as in that of teaching. Let men establish themselves as merchants, mechanics, manufacturers, or farmers, without any apprenticeship, if they will; but let not the man who is to train the youthful mind, engage in this important business, without a thorough course of preparation.

If the husbandman would deem it a misfortune to commit an untutored colt to the hands of an inexperienced horseman; if the house-carpenter would not commit the planning and arranging of a valuable house to a young apprentice; surely parents ought not to entrust the training of their children, the formation of their characters, to the hands of young and inexperienced teachers.

Not unfrequently has it happened, that the labor of the young teacher, for the term of three or four months, has been of more service to him, in giving him experience, than to his pupils, in giving them instruction.

Your committee would therefore suggest, as one plan for the improvement of the schools of this town, the employment, as far as possible, of experienced teachers. This may be done in many, if not in all cases, without any increase of expense. It is a well established fact, that female teachers are far more successful, in many of our public schools, than male teachers.

A number of schools in the adjoining towns, which are represented by those who have visited them as model schools, are taught by ladies. For those schools in which the great proportion of the scholars are young, there can be no question that a female teacher should be preferred.

In this connection your committee would suggest the importance of a Normal school in this state, where those designing to teach may serve

an apprenticeship, and learn the art of giving instruction. This is an important plan for the improvement of the schools throughout the state.

Another plan for improving the schools, is compliance with the law in regard to books.

If a father, who wished his son to learn the cabinet-maker's trade, would hesitate to put him into a shop where this was carried on in connection with various other trades, as carriage-making, wheelwright, and carpentering, and all mingled together; if the manufacturer would not fill his weaving room with every variety of looms, and attempt at one and the same time to keep in use all the patterns of power looms that have ever been made; if the farmer will not keep in use the old fashioned plow, simply because he has it on hand, and use it alternately with the new one in the same field; why should a teacher be required to work with a half dozen different kinds of arithmetic, or grammar, or geography?

If the farmer can do more work in the same time, and do it better, with a patent plow than with the old one; if the manufacturer can accomplish more by operating but one kind of loom in the same room; if the apprentice will learn his trade better by being kept steadily at it; much more does this principle apply in respect to schools, especially in regard to different kinds of books for the same study.

A good house is of more importance than many suppose, in securing a good school. The farmer who sends his men into his meadow with battered scythes, because he will not spare the time or the means to sharpen them, is far less liable to the charge of folly, than are those parents who pay for the instruction of their children, and then put them into a school house so uncouth and uncomfortable, that they will not accomplish half what they would do in a room properly fitted up for the purpose. It is confidently hoped that the evil here alluded to, will soon be remedied in all the districts, as it already is in some of them, in which the advantage is apparent in the improving condition of the schools in such districts.

Another subject of great importance is regularity and punctuality of attendance. None but those who have experience on this subject, as teachers, can appreciate fully the evils of irregular and late attendance at school. How would the apprentice succeed in acquiring a knowledge of his trade, by working one week and being absent the next? What would become of the manufacturing establishment, where the operatives should choose their own time for commencing work, each one according to his own convenience?

Apparatus for the school room, and district libraries, are means for improving the schools that should not be neglected.

With these few suggestions we leave the subject with you; hoping that those who may succeed us in these responsibilities may be able, at the close of the ensuing year, to present a more animating and encouraging report.

By order, and in behalf of the committee,

CHARLES P. GROSVENOR, *Chairman.*

JOURNAL

OF THE

Rhode Island

INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION.

Vol. II. PROVIDENCE, September, 15, 1847. No. 5.

SCHOOL-HOUSES.

A new edition of the document on School-houses, printed with the Report of the Commissioner of Public Schools, in the first volume of this Journal, having been called for, will soon be published, with plans and descriptions of several new houses, and with cuts illustrating recent improvements in the construction of seats and desks, and in the ventilation and warming of school-rooms. That the subscribers to the present volume of the Journal may have the benefit of the new edition of that document, we shall devote this number to the additional matter to be contained in that edition. We shall issue at this time only the first sixteen pages of Number 5, and shall forward the remaining pages after receiving several additional cuts to illustrate the recent improvements in ventilation, introduced into the school-houses of Boston.

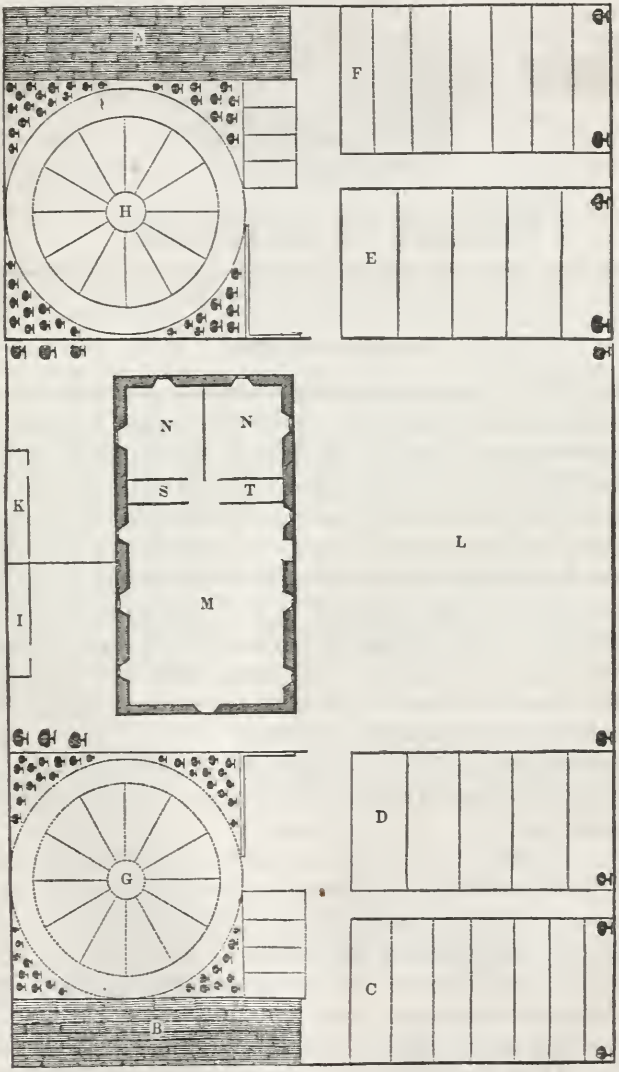
The improvements made in this department in Rhode Island, are most gratifying, a full account of which will be given in a future Report to the Legislature.

The school-houses of Providence are highly creditable to the liberality of the city, and have been very generally admired. They are susceptible of improvement, in the arrangements for ventilation, in all the houses, and especially for the heating and ventilation of the Primary School-houses. We should be glad to see also, accommodations provided elsewhere than in the school-room, for outer garments, &c.

The school-houses in District No. 1, in Portsmouth; at Carolina Mills, in Richmond; at Chepachet, in Glocester; in District No. 1, and at Centre Mill, in North Providence; at Smithville, in Scituate, are worthy of examination by committees who are looking for plans for the internal arrangement of school-houses.

PLAN OF SCHOOL-ROOM AND GROUNDS FOR A VILLAGE SCHOOL.

The following sketch by Dr. Dick, (author of *Mental Illumination*), of the plan and accommodations of a Village School is copied from the *Pennsylvania Common School Journal*, vol. 1, p. 120.



A. B—Covered walks for exercise in winter and rainy days. C. D. E. F—Plats for flowers, shrubs, evergreens, and a few forest trees. G. H—Circles with twelve compartments each, for a different class of plants. I. K—Yards divided with a wall, with suitable accommodations for either sex. L—Portion of ground, smoothed and graveled for play-ground, with circular swing, &c. M—Room, 50 by 30 feet, and 14 feet high. N. N.—Class-rooms, 18 by 15. S. T.—Closets for apparatus, &c.

Plan, &c., of School-rooms for Schools of different grades and different systems of instruction.

The plans and remarks for arranging school-rooms thus far, are more particularly applicable to comparatively small, or country schools, where the instruction and government is conducted by one teacher, with at most but one assistant. A few remarks explanatory of the terms used by writers on education, when speaking of systems of organization and instruction, may be useful to a full comprehension of the principles of arrangement embraced in the plans which follow.

1. The *individual* method is the practice on the part of the teacher, of calling up each scholar by himself for recitation, or giving instruction to each scholar in his seat, or calling up classes and hearing each scholar individually, which is practically the same thing. This method will answer a valuable end in a very small school, and must be introduced to some extent in our small country districts where there are children of every age, and in a great variety of studies, and of different degrees of proficiency in each study. It prevails, however, altogether too generally, even in larger districts which admit of a classification of children into schools of different grades, and of the children in each grade of schools. This classification is the first great step towards school improvement.

2. In the *simultaneous* method, the whole school, together, or in successive classes carefully arranged according to their intellectual proficiency, is instructed directly by the teacher. Questions and explanations are addressed to the whole school, or the whole class, as the case may be, and answers are given by all together, or by some one pointed out by the teacher, while all must show by some silent sign, there ability to do so. This method keeps every mind attentive, gives confidence to the timid, admits of the liveliness of oral and interrogative instruction, economizes the time and labor of the teacher, and enlists the great principle of sympathy of numbers engaged in common pursuit. The extent to which this method can be properly carried, will depend not so much on the size of the schools, as on the fact that the school is composed of children in the same studies, and of the same proficiency. This method ought not to exclude entirely individual instruction.

When the number of children increases beyond that which one teacher can conveniently instruct together, or in successive classes, he must adopt the monitorial, the mixed, or the Fächer system, for such classes as he cannot superintend or teach.

3. By the *monitorial* or *mutual* method, is understood the practice of employing the advanced pupils, and many of them very young, to assist in the supervision and instruction of the school, or of particular classes, as systematized by Mr. Lancaster, or Dr. Bell, and as pursued in the schools connected with the National, and the British and Foreign School Societies, England. This method, in different countries, on its first promulgation, attracted much of public favor, on account of its economy, especially in populous districts. In England it still receives the sanction of the two great Societies named above. In Germany it was never adopted in the public schools. In Holland it was tried, and abandoned, but not without modifying very materially the methods of instruction before pursued, and finally leading to the adoption of the *mixed* method. In the large cities of the United States, it was early adopted, but there is hardly a school in the whole country now conducted on the pure monitorial or Lancasterian system, although there are many so called. As pursued in the excellent schools of the New York Public School Society, it is nearly the mixed method as understood and practiced in Holland, and as recommended by the Committee of Council on Education in England.

With these modifications, and the limitation of the duties of the younger monitors to keeping the registers, heading the classes in marching to and from their class-rooms, or the playground, taking charge of books, &c., and in other matters of order and mechanical arrangements, the monitorial system might be advantageously adopted in schools of every grade, and of any system of instruction.

4. The *mixed* method, as the term is generally understood, is a modification of the simultaneous and monitorial system, in which the principal teacher, while he has the superintendence at all times of the whole school, and gives general instruction at certain hours, and in certain studies, to the whole school, as well as to particular classes, employs in the work of class instruction, assistants who are better instructed, and, as a general rule, are older than those employed as monitors under the Lancasterian system, and are not yet qualified to have the whole charge of a school. For example, in Holland, "every school produces two classes of assistants, who are most usefully and economically employed in aiding him in the management and instruction of the school, and may be called *pupil teachers* and *assistant teachers*. By *pupil teacher* is meant a young teacher, in the first instance introduced to the notice of the master by his good qualities, as one of the best instructed and most intelligent of the children; whose attainments and skill are full of promise; and who, having consented to remain at a low rate of remuneration in the school, is further rewarded by being enabled to avail himself of the opportunities afforded him for attaining practical skill in the art of teaching, by daily practice in the school, and by the gratuitous superintendence of his reading and studies by the master, *from whom he receives lessons on technical subjects of school instruction every evening*. He commonly remains in the school in the rank of pupil teacher from the age of 14 to that of 17, daily imbibing a more intimate acquaintance with school management, and all the matter of instruction in elementary schools, and he then proceeds, by attendance at a Normal school, or by further proficiency attained by his own exertions, to qualify himself to act as an assistant teacher. The assistant teacher prepared by these preliminary studies in the elementary Normal school commences his duties at 18 or 20 years of age.

Assistants thus reared in the atmosphere of schools are exceedingly preferable to the best instructed men who are not familiarized by daily habitude with the minutest details of school management. Such assistants constantly replenish the ranks of the teachers with men, all the hopes of whose youth have been directed towards success in the profession of a schoolmaster, and whose greatest ambition is to be distinguished by the excellence of their schools.

5. The *Fächer* system, as it is termed in Germany where it is most popular, consists in employing separate teachers for separate studies, or as we should apply it here, for distinct departments of government, and of instruction. This is the principle on which instruction in our colleges and most of our higher seminaries is given, and is in reality the mixed method carried to its highest perfection. The vital error in our common schools, as they are now organized, is the practice of employing one teacher for the government and instruction of fifty or sixty children of every age, of both sexes, in a great variety of studies, and in different stages of proficiency in each study. It is very rare to find a teacher with the varied qualifications, which success under these circumstances presupposes, while it is not very difficult to find a teacher with talent and experience sufficient to teach some one study, or a few cognate branches, as an assistant, acting under the general direction of a well qualified principal.

Any school organization and arrangements would be imperfect which did not include the systematic training and instruction of very young children, especially in cities and manufacturing villages. Whatever may have been done by others at an earlier date, it seems to be generally conceded now, that to Mr. Wilderspin belongs the credit of having reduced infant education to the science which it now is. It was unfortunate for the improvement of the quality of education given in our schools, that the infant school system was tried in this country, without a full comprehension of its legitimate principles, methods and end, and that the experiment was abandoned so hastily. Its partial and temporary success, however, led to the extension and improvement of our primary schools, and this circumstance renders the success of any well directed effort for their re-establishment more certain.

Plan and Description of Public School, No. 17, New York.

The following plans and explanation of a "Public School" and a "Primary School" are copied from the "Thirty-ninth Annual Report of the Trustees of the Public School Society of New York." The plans after which the school-houses of this Society were originally constructed, as well as the methods of instruction pursued in their schools, were adopted from those recommended by Joseph Lancaster, and the British and Foreign School Society. These plans and methods have been from time to time essentially modified, until they can no longer be characterized as Lancasterian or Monitorial, but the plans and methods of the Public School Society of New York. There are two grades of schools, the higher called the Public Schools, and the lower, called the Public Primary Schools. Those schools of the primary grade, which are in the buildings appropriated to the higher schools, are designated Primary Departments, to distinguish them from the Primaries taught in separate buildings. The system of instruction pursued in the Primary Departments was originally the Infant School system, and still retains many of the methods of that system. The school-rooms were, therefore, constructed and furnished in reference to simultaneous exercises of the whole school, to oral instruction with visible illustrations, and to physical movements of various kinds.

Public School, No. 17, is in 13th Street, between the 7th and 8th Avenues, on the centre of a lot of ground 100 feet front and rear, by 103½ feet deep. The main building is 42 feet front, and 80 feet deep; the stair building (in the rear,) is 21 by 14 feet. The main building is 49 feet high, from the pavement to the eaves. The first story of the front of the main building is of brown stone, polished, as is also the bases and caps of the pilasters. The walls are all of brick (including the front fences); the front being of (what are called) Philadelphia pressed bricks; the front cornice is of wood, and painted white.

The windows of the lower story, contain each 30, and the two upper stories each 40 panes of glass, 12 by 10 inches: the sashes are all hung with weights and cords, so that they may be raised or lowered at pleasure.

The rooms are all wainscoted, as high as the window sills: the wainscoting, doors, and desks are all grained in imitation of oak: the doors, window casings, and sashes are painted white. The rooms are ventilated by means of six blinds, 2 by 3 feet, being placed in the ceiling between the timbers, and two or three bricks being left out opposite the blinds, in the outside walls.

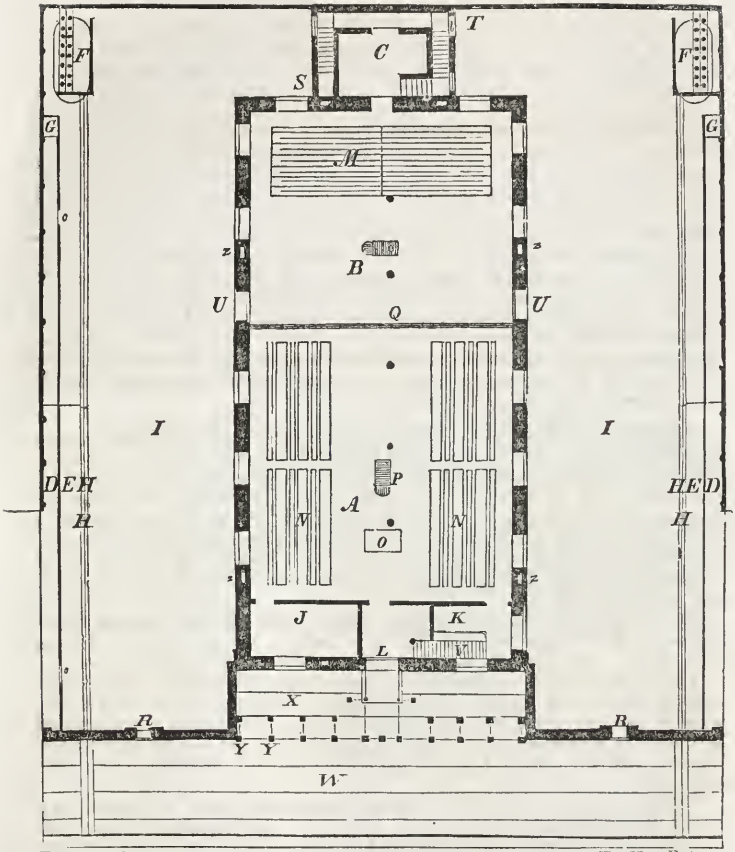
The first story is 11 feet 6 inches high in the clear, and is occupied as a Primary Department, for both boys and girls, and contains seats for 150 children in the Front Room, (marked A on Fig. 1,) and 200 on the Gallery, (marked M on Fig. 1); making in all 350 seats in this department.

The second story is occupied as the Girls' department; the room is 15½ feet high in the clear, and contains seats for 252 scholars.

The third story is occupied as the Boys' department; the room is 16½ feet high in the clear, and contains seats for 252 scholars; making in all 854 seats in the building, exclusive of the seats in the recitation rooms.

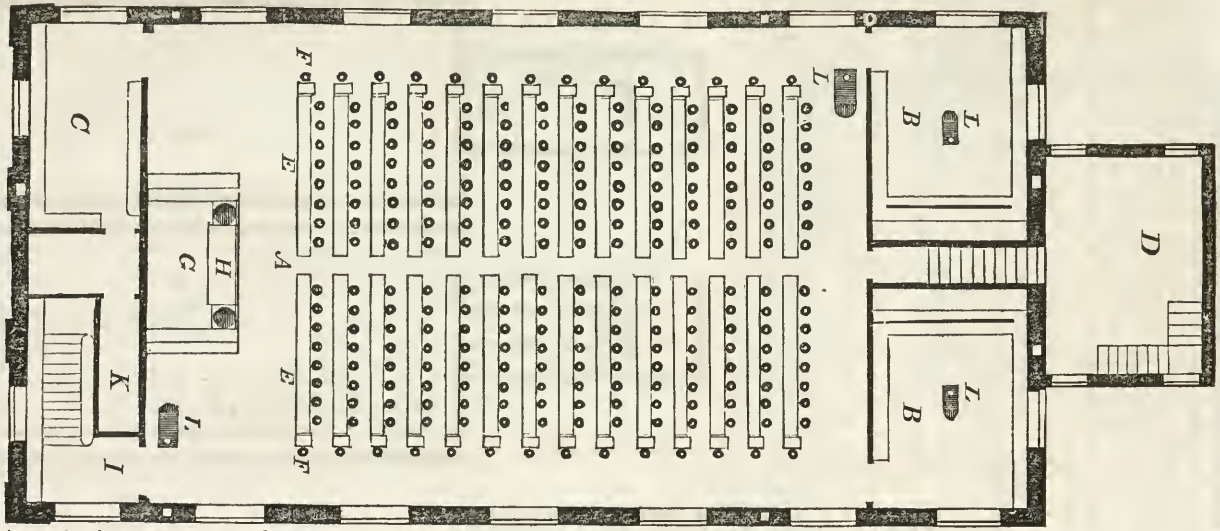
The steps in the stair building, by which the scholars enter and retire from school, are of blue stone, 3 inches thick by 12 inches wide, and are expected to last as long as any part of the building. This method was adopted to avoid the necessity of putting in new steps every few years, (which has heretofore been necessary where wooden steps have been used,) and also to lessen the noise consequent on a great number of children going either up or down wooden steps, at the same time; thus far the experiment has succeeded admirably, and is now adopted for both Public and Primary Schools.

Fig 1. Ground plan of Primary Department, yards, &c.



A—Primary School room 39 by 38 feet.
B—Infant do do 39 by 30 feet.
C—Room for brooms, pails, &c.
J—Boys' ward-robe, 16½ by 8 feet.
K—Girls' do 12½ by 8 feet.
M—Gallery, 32 by 11 feet—Seats for 200 children.
N, N—Desks, each 16½ feet long.
O—Teachers' table.
L—Main entrance.
R, R—Entrance to the yard.
U, U do to Primary department.
V—Stairs to Girls' and Boys' do.
S—Scholars' entrance—Boys' do.
T do do Girls' do.
Q—Sliding doors—28 by 9½ feet.
P, P—Stoves.
Z, Z—Flues for stove pipes.
I, I—Play ground, 102 by 26 feet; paved with brick. F, F—Privies, 12 by 8 feet. G, G—Boxes for sand—3 by 2½ feet.
D, D—Wood-houses—83 by 2½ feet, and 6½ feet high; the front of which is made of hemlock strips, 4 by 2 inches, set perpendicularly 2 inches apart, to allow a free circulation of air.
E, E—Roof of wood-houses—projecting 3½ feet beyond the front of the houses; forming a shelter for the scholars in stormy weather.
H, H—Gutters of blue stone to conduct the waste water from the wood-houses and yards to the street.
X—Court Yard—8½ wide; blue stone flagging. Y, Y—Stone foundation blocks, to which the iron railing in front is secured.

Fig. 2. Ground Plan of the Boy's Department, or third story.



A—School room—55 by 38½ feet.
B, B—Recitation rooms—17 by 13 feet; seats for 50 scholars.
C— do do 16½ by 8 feet: seats for 25 scholars.
D—Receiving room, and scholars' entrance; this room is furnished with a sufficient number of cloak and hat hooks, to accommodate all the scholars, in each department.
I—Front entrance and stairway.
K—Book Closet.
L, L, L, L—Stoves.
G—Platform, raised 1 foot 9 inches above the floor.
H—Teachers' Desk, with a shelf at each end for globes.
E, E,—Scholars' Desks; each 12 feet 8 inches long—19 inches for each scholar.
F, F—Monitors' stations.

The front of the teachers' desk, toward the scholars, is formed by a blackboard 3 feet wide, and extending the whole length of the desk.

PLAN &c., OF PRIMARY SCHOOL, NEW YORK.

The main building is 25 feet front, by 62½ feet deep: the stair building is 27 feet by 11 feet 8 inches. The main building is placed 6 or 8 feet from the line of the street, according to the depth of the lot. The walls above the ground are built entirely of brick. The roof is of tin; and the gutters of copper. The lower doors and windows have iron bars inserted, for safety, and to admit a free circulation of air in the summer, but are closed with sashes in the winter.

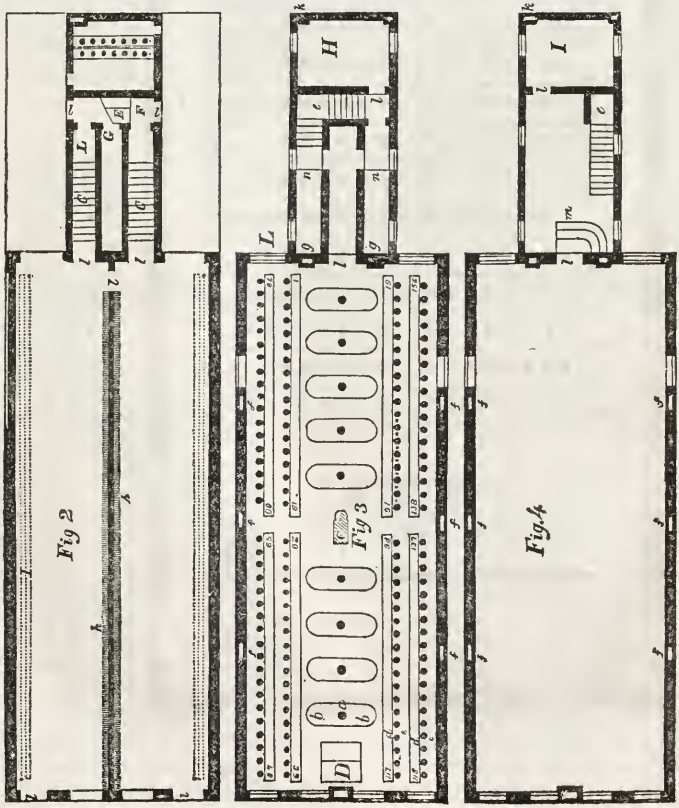
Fig. 1. Ground plan of first story, or play-ground.

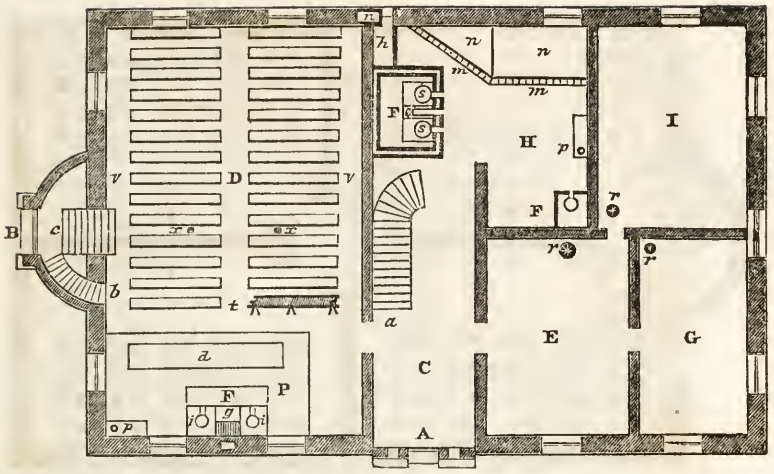
This story is 7½ feet in the clear, with a partition wall through the middle to give separate play-grounds for the boys' and girls' schools. This wall is 8 inches thick; and about 2½ feet of the upper part is open work for ventilation.

C, C — Stairways. L, F — Places for pine (kindling) wood — under stairs. E.—Sand box for both departments. h, h—Piles of wood about 4½ feet high. I, I—Lines on which the scholars are marshaled, previous to entering school. l, l, l—Doors.

Fig. 2 and 3. Ground plan of boys' and girls' department, each 60 by 32.

D—Teachers' platform and table, (movable rollers.) d, d—Desks for scholars—the black dots are iron chairs. a—Cast iron lesson stands—on which two lesson boards are hung, to accommodate classes standing on the line b, b. H—Class Room. g, g, g—Flues, or chimnies, for stove pipes. f, f, f, &c.—Air flues, or recesses for ventilation, extending from the 2d story to the garret. C—Stove—the pipes extend from the stove to the front into the flue, and also to the rear.





No. 15.—Plan of the Basement of High School.

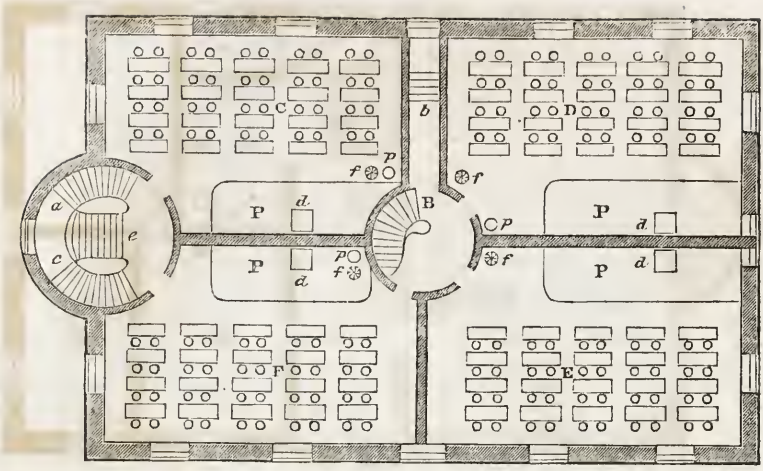
platform [P], raised seven inches from the floor, a long table or counter [*d*], made convenient for experimental lectures in Chemistry, Natural Philosophy, &c., having pneumatic cisterns for holding gasses. At [F, &c.] are suitable provisions for the fires used in the preparations of chemical experiments. The pump [*p*], with a sink like the other, is used exclusively by the pupils in the boys' department.

In all lectures, and other exercises in this room, the girls, entering at [*a*], occupy the seats on the right of [D], the middle aisle. The boys, entering by descending the short flight of stairs [*b*], are seated on the opposite side of the room. This may seem like descending to useless particulars, but it is done to show that there are no grounds for the objections sometimes made against having a school for boys and for girls in the same building, where the departments are kept entirely separate, except in exercises in vocal music and occasional lectures. The boys enter the house at the end door [B], which is six feet above the basement floor, and, by a short flight of stairs, they reach the first story at [*e*].

The three rooms [C, D, F] are appropriated to the department for girls. They are easy of access to the pupils, who, ascending the broad flight of stairs, terminating at [B], can pass readily into their respective rooms.

The course of instruction in the school occupying three years, the room [D] is appropriated to the studies for the first, [E] to those of the second, and [F] to the course for the third year. In each room there are three sizes of seats and desks, and their arrangement in all is uniform. The largest are on the back side of the room. The largest desks are four feet eight inches long, and twenty-two inches wide on the top; the middle size is two inches smaller, and the other is reduced in the same proportions. The largest seats are as high as common chairs, about seventeen inches, and the remaining sizes are reduced to correspond with the desks. The passages around the sides of the rooms vary from two to four feet wide, and those between the rows of desks, from eighteen to twenty-four inches.

On the raised platforms [P, P, P, P] are the teachers' tables [*d*, *d*, *d*, *d*], covered with dark woolen cloth, and furnished with four drawers each. The registers [*f*, *f*, *f*, *f*] admit the warm air from the furnace, and the pipes [*p*, *p*, *p*] conduct it into the rooms in the upper story. The passage [*b*] leads into the back yard, which is ornamented with a variety of shrubbery.

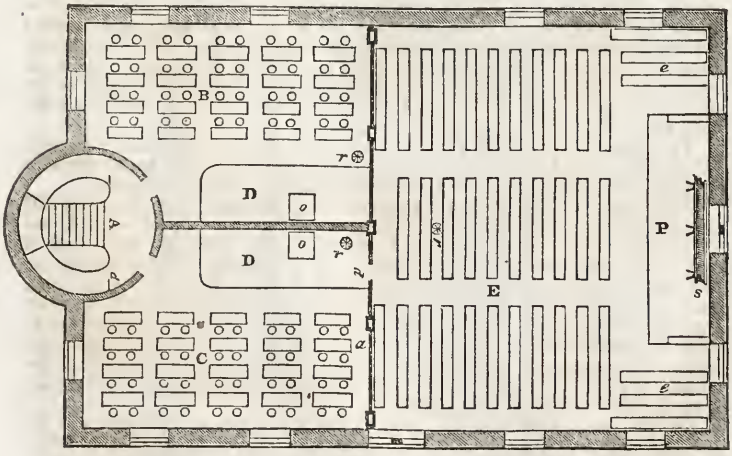


No. 16.—Plan of the First Story of the High School.

The door leading from the room [F] is used only for teachers and visitors, except when the two departments assemble in the hall.

In the room [C] the boys pursue the studies prescribed for the first year; the other rooms in this department are in the next story.

Pupils ascending from the area [*e*], by two circular stairways, land on the broad space [*a*, *c*], from which, by a short flight of stairs, they reach [A], in the following cut, the floor of the upper story, which is sixteen feet in the clear.



No. 17.—Plan of the Second Story of the High School-House.

The following remarks are from the "*Report of the Primary School Committee to the Board of Trustees of the Public School Society of New York, on the use of* SEATS WITHOUT BACKS:—

"On inquiry of the female teachers, several of the oldest and most experienced among them say, that instances of curved spine are often perceived among their scholars. Individual members of this Board have noticed similar instances; and it deserves to be mentioned, that a highly respectable and intelligent foreign gentleman, who is deeply interested in the cause of education, on a late visit to one of our schools, expressed his surprise on perceiving how large a proportion of the girls were round-shouldered and stooping in their figure."

* * * * * * *

"1st. It is a matter of notoriety to the medical profession, that, until about thirty or forty years ago, spinal curvatures were very little known. It is only since "the schoolmaster has got abroad,"—only since so great and universal an impulse has been given to education, that these cases have become sufficiently numerous to attract the particular attention of medical men. There is now to be found a distinct class of practitioners, and of machinists, who live and thrive by the treatment of spinal injuries.

2d. A large proportion of these cases can be distinctly traced to causes connected with school education. Among the illiterate in all countries, these injuries are scarcely known. They occur most frequently in schools where females are much confined to a sitting posture, with but a scanty allowance of those robust and active exercises which impart power to the muscular system, and invigorate the general health.

It should be here explained, that the trunk of the body is sustained in its erect position, solely by the action of muscles. Young and growing females who are but feebly endowed with muscular strength, experience such a sense of weariness in sitting upright, as to be induced, from necessity, to drop the body into a variety of curvatures; and one particular curve becoming habitual and long persisted in, finally ends in permanent deformity. The influence of exercise in preventing the evil, is precisely that which it has on the arm of a blacksmith; it augments the bulk, and redoubles the power of the muscles, and gives greater firmness and security to the joints.

3d. In all large cities there are many children, who, from infancy, are strongly predisposed to these affections, owing to a constitutional feebleness of muscle, or an unhealthy condition of the bones or joints. These require every precaution, during the course of their education, to prevent deformity.

Supposing the females attending our schools to be liable to spinal injuries, are these injuries owing to the use of seats without backs? The answer must be, that they are instrumental in causing them, just so far as they place the scholar under the necessity of seeking relief in the crooked and unhealthy attitudes into which she throws her body. Another question of similar import, is this:—*Would seats with back-supports tend to prevent these injuries?* A similar answer must be given. Such seats would act as a preventive, just in proportion as they removed the temptation and the necessity for indulging in injurious flexures of the body. When we see, as we often may, a girl of rapid growth, of yielding joints, and of feeble muscles, propping the weight of her body on her elbows, or, by way of change, bringing her sides alternately to rest on the desk before her, can we doubt for a moment, that, with a back-support, she would run less risk of injury to her figure? And in regard to those children, before alluded to, as having a natural predisposition to spinal distortions, seats of this kind would be indispensable to their safety."

The Boston Primary School Chair.

These Chairs were got up for the special benefit of the *Boston Primary Schools*, by Joseph W. Ingraham, Esq., Chairman of the Primary School Standing Committee; and have already been introduced, by order of the Primary School Board, into the greater portion of their Schools.



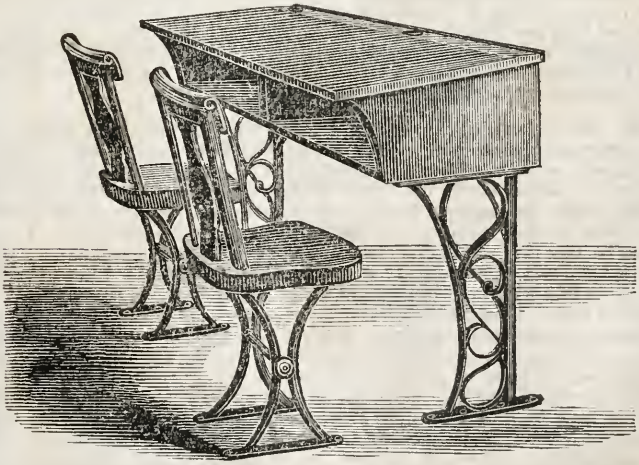
The first pattern, is a Chair with a *Shelf* (*s*) under the seat, for the purpose of holding the Books, Slates, &c. of the scholars.

The second pattern differs from the first, in having, instead of the *Shelf*, a *Rack* (A) on the back of the chair, for the same use as the Shelf in the preceding pattern. The third pattern is similar to the second, except that the *Rack* (A) is placed at *the side*, instead of *the back*, of the chair. The latter pattern (with the Rack on the side) is that now adopted in the Boston Schools.

These chairs are manufactured by William G. Shattuck, No. 80 *Commercial Street*, Boston. The price is fifty cents, each, for those with the Shelf, and *sixty-five* cents for those with the Rack.

Kimball's Improved School Chairs and Desk.

"These Chairs combine strength, comfort, and style of finish. They are made of different heights, varying from eight to sixteen inches, and for Primary as well as for Grammar and District Schools.



The School Desks are made of Pine, Cherry, or Black Walnut, and of heights to correspond with the chairs. The iron supporters are firmly screwed to the floor, and are braced in such a manner that there is not the least motion."

The above extracts are taken from the Circular of James Kimball, 109 or 127 *Essex Street, Salem, Mass.*

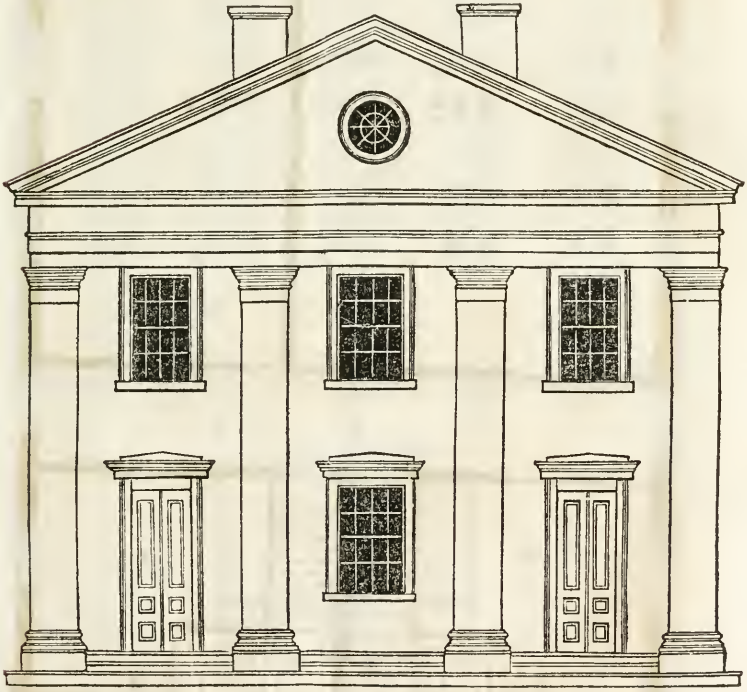
Plans and Descriptions of the Massachusetts Normal School-Houses.

The following plans and descriptions are copied from the "Tenth Annual Report of the Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education," with the permission of the Hon. Horace Mann, by whose indefatigable labors these institutions were founded, seconded as his efforts were by the munificent donation of the sum of ten thousand dollars, from the Hon. Edmund Dwight, of Boston.

These buildings were erected partly out of the contribution of $5000, subscribed originally by the friends of Mr. Mann, as a testimony of their esteem for his public services, and, at his suggestion, invested in this way—thus converting these edifices into the monuments of their generosity, and of his self-sacrifice.

Bridgewater State Normal School-House.

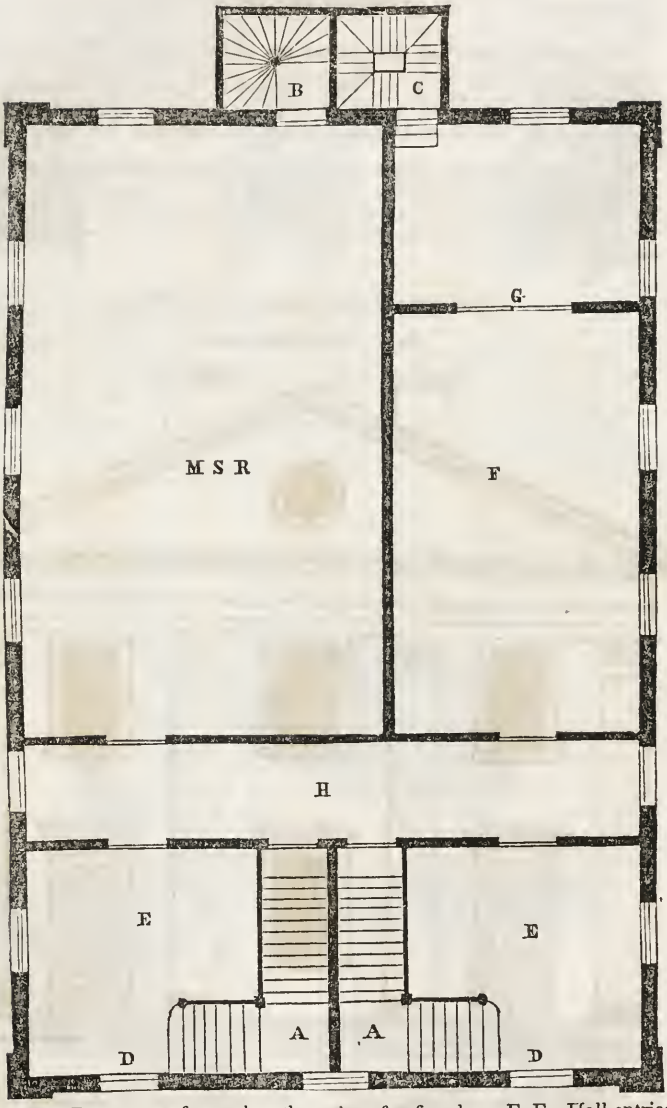
Fig. 1.—Front Elevation.



This edifice is constructed of wood, and is sixty-four feet by forty-two, and two stories in height. The upper story is divided into a principal school-room, forty-one feet by forty, and two recitation-rooms, each twenty feet by twelve, and is designed for the Normal School. The lower story is fitted up for a Model School.

BRIDGEWATER STATE NORMAL SCHOOL-HOUSE.

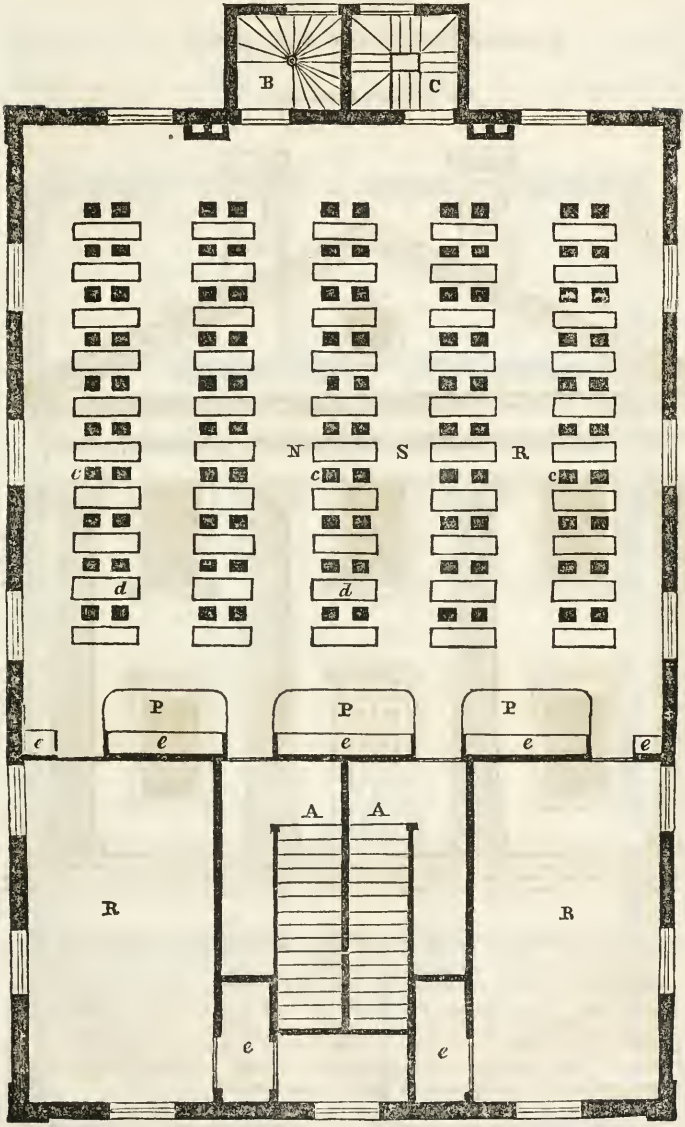
Fig. 2.—LOWER STORY.



D, D—Doors, one for males, the other for females. E, E—Hall-entries, into which the doors D, D open, 19 feet by 15. A, A—Stairways, leading from the entries to the Normal School-room. M, S, R—Model School-room, 40 feet by 24, with single seats and desks. H—Entry-way, 6 feet 8 inches wide, for Model School scholars. At each end of this entry is an outside door, for the entrance of the Model School scholars—a separate entrance for each sex. G, F—Laboratory and chemical room, or lecture-room, connected by folding doors. The two rooms 40 feet by 16. B, C—Back stairways.

BRIDGEWATER STATE NORMAL SCHOOL-HOUSE.

Fig. 3.—UPPER STORY.



A, A—Separate stairways, for the different sexes, leading from the lower entries, or halls, to the Normal School-room. N, S, R—Normal School-room, 41 feet by 40. c, c, c—Single seats. d, d—Double desks. P, P, P—Teachers' platform. e, e, e, e, e—Behind the platform are recesses in the partition for a library. e, e—Between R, R, are closets for apparatus. R, R—Recitation-rooms, 22 feet by 12. B, C—Back stairways.

Westfield State Normal School-House.

Fig. 4.—Front Elevation.



This edifice is of brick, of the size of sixty-two feet by forty feet, with a portico of eight feet at each end of the building, and is two stories in height. The Normal School-room is about forty feet square, and is provided with two recitation-rooms. The first story is fitted up with a room large enough to accommodate a Model School, which is composed of the children of one of the districts in the town of Westfield, the district having paid the sum of $1500 towards the erection of the building, and being obligated to pay an agreed proportion of the expenses of fuel, instruction, &c.

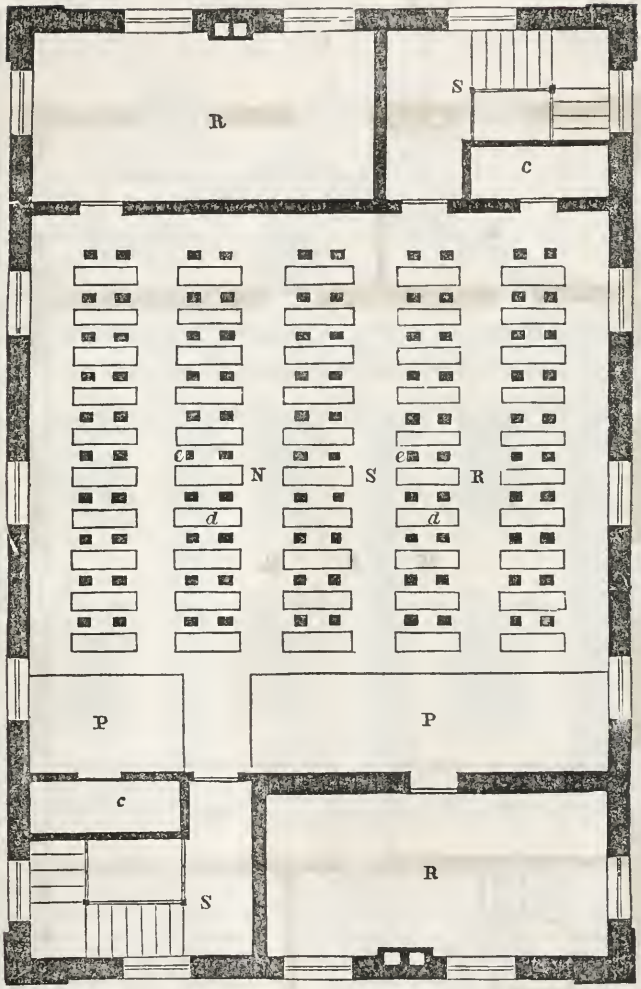
WESTFIELD STATE NORMAL SCHOOL-HOUSE.

Fig. 5.—LOWER STORY.

A, A—Portico of 40 feet by 8, at each end. D, D—Doors, one for males, the other for females. S, S—Entries and stairways, leading to Normal School-room. M, S, R—Model School-room, 38 feet by 37, with single seats and desks. P P—Teachers' platform. R, R—Recitation-rooms, one 15½ feet by 11, the other 17 feet by 11.

Westfield State Normal School-House.

Fig. 6.—Upper Story.



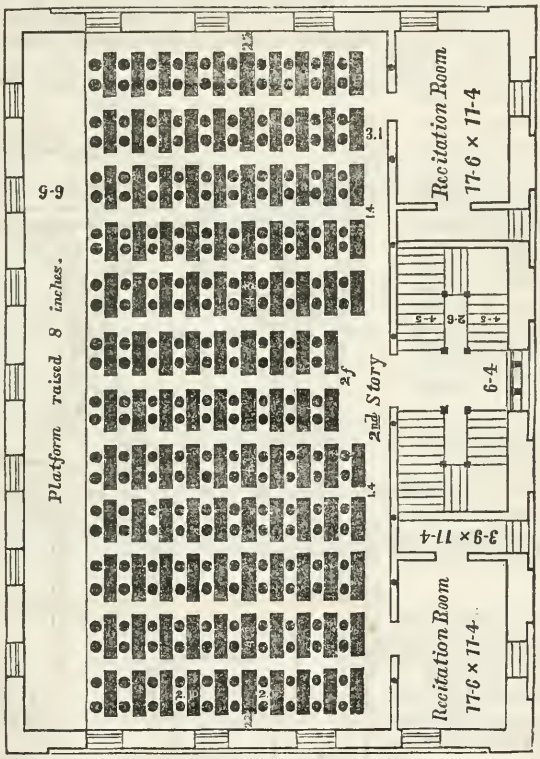
S, S—Stairways, leading from entry to Normal School-room. N, S, R—Normal School-room, 38 feet by 37. e, e—Single seats. d, d—Double desks. P, P—Platform, with recesses in the partition behind for a library. c, c—Closets for apparatus. R, R—Recitation-rooms, one 22 feet by 11, the other 22 feet by 10½.

PLANS, &c., OF BRIMMER GRAMMAR SCHOOL, BOSTON.

This building was erected in 1843. It is situated on Common-street, near Washington. It is 74 feet in length on the street, by 52 feet deep, with three stories. The entrance is in the center of the front into a hall 8 feet wide, leading through into the yard in the rear, which is divided by a wall into three portions. The passage to the second and third floors is by a double flight of stairs near the front door.

The first floor is occupied by two Primary School-rooms, each 30 by 22 feet, and 11 feet high; and the Ward-room, 30 by 50 feet.

The school-room on the *second floor* is 70 feet by 37 feet wide, and 14 feet 6 inches high between the bays. The ceiling is plastered up between the bays, (cross timbers) by which eighteen inches are grained in height, dividing the ceiling into equal compartments. There are two recitation rooms, one



on each side the entrance, 17 feet 6 inches, by 11 feet 4 inches each, with two windows in each room, and benches on all the sides for the pupils. The school-room is lighted on three sides, and contains 118 desks, and 236 chairs, two chairs to each desk, the desks and chairs being of four sizes. The tops of the desks are cherry wood, and the chairs are Wales' patent. The desks are separated by aisles one foot four inches in width, except the center aisle, which is two feet wide.

The aisles on the side nearest the recitation-rooms, are three feet wide, and those at each end, 2 feet 6 inches each. The platform on which are the desks of the master and assistants, is eight inches high, and 6 feet 6

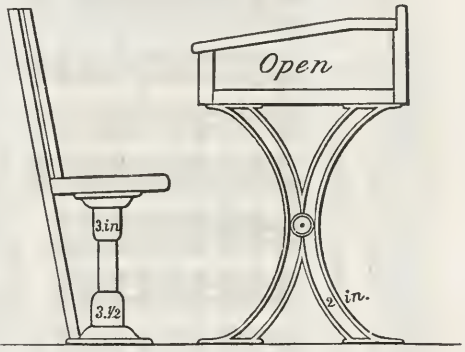
inches wide, and the desks are so placed *that the pupils sit with their backs to the platform;* and the pupils are so arranged at the desks in classes and sections, that when one class is reciting, the desk is only occupied by one pupil. The windows are shaded by inside blinds painted green.

The school-room on the *third floor* is of the same size, having an arched ceiling 13 feet high in the center, with recitation-rooms and other arrangements similar to the school-room on the second floor.

The building is warmed by two furnaces, and ventilated by six flues, discharging into the attic, from which the impure air is carried off by copper ventilators in the roof. The openings into the flues in the school-rooms are controlled by Preston's ventilators.

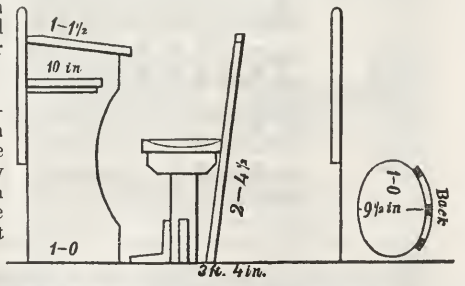
The frame of Preston's Ventilator is made of a flat bar of iron $2\frac{1}{2}$ by $\frac{1}{4}$ inch, framed at the corners, the end at each corner running by in order to receive a clamp to screw the frame to the brick work; the door is of plate iron, ($\frac{1}{16}$ wire gage), with a rod passing down the center of the plate, on the back side, each end of the rod running by the plate and entering the frame, forming a pivot on which the plate or door of the ventilator turns. The door shuts against a projection in the frame.

The chair in the accompanying section of a desk and seat, similar to those with which the new Latin High School in Bedford-street is furnished, is Wales' *Patent School chair.* The iron standard is one solid piece, having no joining to get loose, or come apart in the use. They are made of any height and size from 8 inches to 17 inches from the top surface of the seat to the floor, by S. Wales, jun., 66 Kilby-street, Boston.

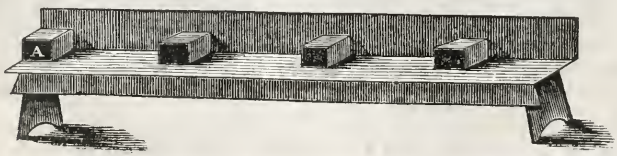


The standard of the desk, represented in the cut, is also cast iron.

The desks in the Brimmer School are more like the one represented in the accompanying section of desk and chair used in the Eliot Grammer School.



The cut below represents the bench used in the Primary School. The scholars are separated by a compartment A, which serves as a rest for the arm, and place of deposit for books.



Hints respecting Blackboards.

The upper portion of the standing blackboard should be inclined back a little from the perpendicular, and along the lower edge there should be a projection or trough to catch the particles detached from the chalk or crayon when in use, and a drawer to receive the sponge, cloth, lamb's-skin, or other soft article used in cleaning the surface of the board.

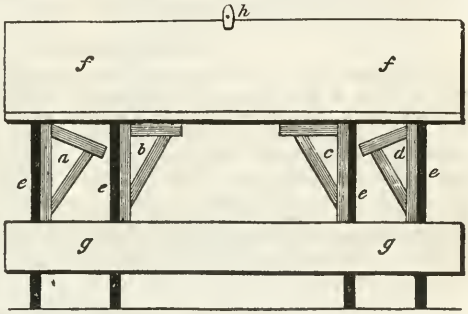
Blackboards, even when made with great care, and of the best seasoned materials, are liable to injury and defacement from warping, opening of seams, or splitting when exposed to the overheated atmosphere of school-rooms, unless they are set in a frame like a slate, or the panel of a door.

By the following ingenious, and cheap contrivance, a few feet of board can be converted into a table, a sloping desk, one or two blackboards, and a form or seat, and the whole folded up so as not to occupy a space more than five inches wide, and be easily moved from one room to another. It is equally well adapted to a school-room, class-room, library or nursery.

f f Under side of the swinging board, suspended by rule-joint hinges, when turned up, painted black or dark chocolate.

a d Folding brackets, inclined at an angle of 75 degrees, and swung out to support the board when a sloping desk is required.

b c Folding brackets to support the swinging board when a bench or flat table is required.



e e e e Uprights attached to the wall.

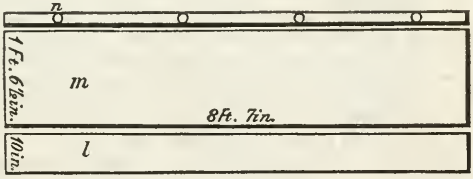
g g Form to be used when the swinging board is let down, and to be supported by folding legs. The under side can be used as a blackboard for small children.

h A wooden button to retain the swinging board when turned up for use as a blackboard.

n Opening to receive inkstands, and deposit for slate, pencil, chalk, &c.

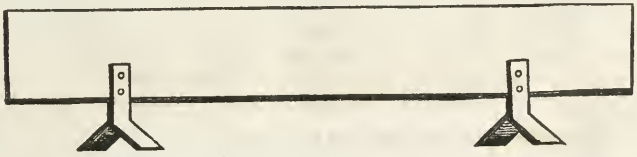
m Surface of swinging board when let down.

l Surface of form or bench.



When not in use, or let down, the desk and form should hang flush with each other.

A cheap movable blackboard can be made after the following cut (Fig. 3.



Slate Blackboard.

In the class-rooms of the American Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb, and all similar institutions, where most of the instruction is given by writing, and drawings on the blackboard, large slates from three feet wide, to four feet long are substituted for the blackboard. These slates cost from $2 to $3, and are superior to any other form of blackboard, and in a series of years prove more economical.

Plaster Blackboard.

As a substitute for the painted board, it is common to paint black a portion of the plastered wall when covered with hard finish, (i. e. plaster of Paris and sand;) or to color it by mixing with the hard finish a sufficient quantity of lamp-black, wet with alcohol, at the time of putting it on. The hard finish, colored in this way, can be put on to an old, as well as to a new surface. Unless the lamp-black is wet with alcohol, or sour beer, it will not mix uniformly with the hard finish, and when dry, the surface, instead of being a uniform black, will present a spotted appearance.

Canvas Blackboard.

Every teacher can provide himself with a portable blackboard made of canvas cloth, 3 feet wide and 6 feet long, covered with three or four coats of black paint, like Winchester's Writing Charts. One side might, like this chart, present the elements of the written characters classified in the order of their simplicity, and guide-marks to enable a child to determine with ease the height, width, and inclination of every letter. Below, on the same side, might be ruled the musical scale, leaving sufficient space to receive such characters as may be required to illustrate lessons in music. The opposite side can be used for the ordinary purposes of a blackboard. When rolled up, the canvas would occupy a space three feet long, and not more than three inches in diameter.

Directions for making Crayons.

A school, or the schools of a town, may be supplied with crayons very cheaply, made after the following directions given by Professor Turner of the American Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb.

Take 5 pounds of Paris White, 1 pound of Wheat Flour, wet with water, and knead it well, make it so stiff that it will not stick to the table, but not so stiff as to crumble and fall to pieces when it is rolled under the hand.

To *roll* out the crayons to the proper size, two boards are needed, *one*, to roll them *on;* the *other* to roll them *with*. The first should be a smooth pine board, three feet long, and nine inches wide. The other should also be pine, a foot long, and nine inches wide, having nailed on the under side, near each edge, a slip of wood one third of an inch thick, in order to raise it so much above the under board, as, that the crayon, when brought to its proper size, may lie between them without being flattened.

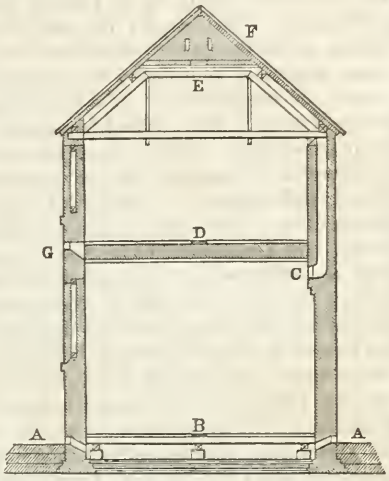
The mass is rolled into a ball, and slices are cut from one side of it about one third of an inch thick; these slices are again cut into strips about four inches long and one third of an inch wide, and rolled separately between these boards until smooth and round.

Near at hand, should be another board 3 feet long and 4 inches wide, across which each crayon, as it is made, should be laid so that the ends may project on each side—the crayons should be laid in close contact and straight. When the board is filled, the ends should be trimmed off so as to make the crayons as long as the width of the board. It is then laid in the sun, if in hot weather, or if in winter, near a stove or fire-place, where the crayons may dry gradually, which will require twelve hours. When thoroughly dry, they are fit for use.

An experienced hand will make 150 in an hour.

Hints respecting Ventilation.

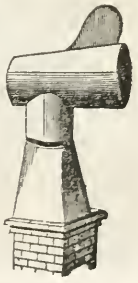
The annexed section exhibits the mode recommended in the "Minutes of the Committee of Council (England) on Education," for regulating a supply of fresh air, and providing for the escape of that rendered unfit for respiration in school-houses with two stories. A, A and G are gratings communicating by a passage through the external wall into a space under the floor, by which cold pure air enters at B and D through valvular openings in the floors into each apartment respectively. The extent of these openings can be enlarged or diminished or entirely closed at any time by turning the valve or register with which each opening should be furnished. At C and E the impure air can be allowed to escape through valvular openings in or near the ceiling; from the lower apartment, by means of a flue in or along the wall into the open space between the upper ceiling and roof; and from the upper apartment directly into the same space. At F are air grates in the ends of the building through which the warm impure air escapes.



The mode of ventilation, above described and illustrated, can be improved by introducing the pure cold air from the atmosphere above the building by one of *Mott's Receiving Cowls* placed on the top of a recess of four or six inches made in the wall if built of brick, or of a flue or pipe extending from the floor to the roof, and discharging it into the room by a valvular opening in the floor. The escape of impure air can be hastened by placing one or more of *Mott's Exhausting Cowls* on a ventilating flue or flues, leading directly from each apartment above the roof or from the attic, into which the impure air has been discharged. The flues or recess, both for introducing pure air, and discharging that which has become impure should have two openings into the room, one near the ceiling and the other at the floor. These flues can be constructed without any additional cost for mason work, by leaving a recess of 4 inches (in a 12 inch wall) by 20 inches, and continuing it through the coping on which the cowl is placed. The furring for the lath being 1 inch, leaves a flue of 100 square inches. The beams, floor, and ceiling will complete the flue. If the room is warmed by one or more stoves, the cold air should be introduced within a few inches of the bottom of the stove. The openings into the flues should be furnished with valves or doors, and should be managed so as to admit the pure cold air to the most heated part of the room, and effect the escape from that part of the room where the air is most impure. This will vary with the mode of heating the room, whether by fireplace, stove, or furnace; and from summer to winter. The openings for the escape of the vitiated air should be so placed as to cause the pure air warmed by contact with the stove, or flowing in from a furnace below, to traverse the whole apartment.



Receiving Cowl.



Exhausting Cowl.

Methods of Ventilation and Warming, recently introduced into the School-Houses of Boston.

In February, 1846, the School Committee of Boston appointed Dr. Edward G. Clark, E. G. Loring, Esq., and Rev. Charles Brooks, a Committee "to consider the subject of ventilation of the school-houses under the care of this Board, and to report at a future meeting some method of remedying the very defective manner in which it is now accomplished." The Committee were further "authorized to ventilate any three school-houses, in such manner as they may deem expedient." Under these instructions, the Committee visited, and carefully examined all the school-houses under the care of the Board, and instituted a variety of experiments, for the purpose of determining on the best method of ventilation, to be generally introduced. In December, 1846, this Committee made a Report, for a copy of which we are indebted to the author, Dr. Clark, by whose agency and ingenuity mainly, these great improvements, both in ventilation and warming, hereafter detailed, have been introduced into the Public Schools of Boston. We are also indebted to Dr. Clark for the use of the cuts by which this Report, and a subsequent Report, are illustrated. We shall extract largely from these valuable documents, with the permission of the author. It will be seen that the views here recommended are substantially the same with those presented under the head of Ventilation, in this Treatise.

"Your Committee desire to call the attention of this Board, chiefly to the consideration of such general and well established Physiological and Philosophical principles, as have a distinct and intimate relation to the subject of this Report, and may be useful in its elucidation.

In doing this, there are two things of which they hope to satisfy the Board.

First. The necessity of a system of ventilation, which shall furnish, for all the pupils in the Public Schools of Boston, at all times, an abundant supply of an atmosphere entirely adapted, in its purity and temperature, to the purposes of respiration.

Secondly. The entire failure of the measures heretofore adopted to accomplish this desirable end.

The function of Respiration, is that process, by whose agency and constant operation, atmospheric air is admitted to the internal surface of the lungs, and there brought into close contact with the blood, for the purpose of effecting certain changes in it, which are essential to the continuance of life, and to maintain the integrity of the bodily organs. During this process, the atmosphere is constantly losing its oxygen, which is carried into the circulation, while, at the same time, it is becoming overcharged with the carbonic acid gas, which is continually thrown off from the lungs by respiration. This effete and deadly poison spreads itself rapidly into all parts of the room.

'M. Lassaigne has shown, by a series of investigations, that, contrary to a common opinion, the air in a room which has served for respiration without being renewed, contains carbonic acid alike in every part, above as well as below; the difference in proportion is but slight; and, where appreciable, there is some reason to believe that the carbonic acid is in greater quantity in the upper parts of a room. These experiments establish the very important fact, that all the air of a room must be changed, in order to restore its purity.'*

Dr. Wyman makes the following remarks on this point: 'Although carbonic acid is a much heavier gas than atmospheric air, it does not, from this cause, fall to the floor, but is equally diffused through the room. If the gas is formed on the floor without change of temperature, this diffusion may not take place

*Silliman's Journal for September, 1846.

rapidly. In the celebrated *Grotto del Cane*, carbonic acid escapes from the floor, and rises to a certain height, which is pretty well defined to the sight on the walls; below this line, a dog is destroyed, as if in water; above it, he is not affected. An analysis of the air above and below a brazier has been made, and it was found equally contaminated,—the former containing 4.65 per cent., and the latter 4.5 per cent. of carbonic acid.

'From the experiments of M. Devergie, who has devoted much attention to the poisonous effects of these gasses, it appears, that the heat disengaged from the combustion of charcoal, produces an equable mixture at all elevations in the apartment; and this state of things continues *as long as the room remains warm;* but after twelve hours or more, the carbonic acid sinks, and while that near the ceiling contains only a seventy-eighth, that near the floor contains nearly four times as much, or a nineteenth.' (*See Prac. Trea.* p. 77.)

If further proof be needed, to establish this position, we have other testimony. During respiration, a considerable quantity of vapor is discharged from the lungs. With regard to this, Mr. Tredgold says: 'if the air did not contain this mixture of vapor, it would not rise when expelled; and we have to admire one of those simple and beautiful arrangements, by which our all-wise Creator has provided against the repeated inhalation of the same air; for a mixture of azote, carbonic acid gas, and vapor, at the temperature it is ejected, is much lighter than common air even at the same temperature. Hence, it rises with such velocity, that it is entirely removed from us before it becomes diffused in the atmosphere. But as all gaseous bodies and vapors intimately mix when suffered to remain in contact, we see how important it is that ventilation should be continual; that the noxious gasses should be expelled as soon as generated; and that the ventilation should be from the upper part of a room.' (*See Tredgold on Warming, &c.*, p. 70.

If, to the foul effluvia ejected from the lungs, and accumulating in an apartment as badly ventilated as one of our school-rooms, be added the fouler matter thrown into the air from the insensible perspiration of so many individuals, many of whom are of uncleanly habits in person and apparel, it is apparent, that, in a very limited period of time, the air, in a perfectly close room, would become so entirely unfit for respiration, that, to all who were exposed to its influence, submersion in water could not be more certainly fatal.

The terrible effects of continued exposure to carbonic acid gas in a concentrated form, have been graphically described by Howard, in his account of the Black Hole of Calcutta. Of one hundred and forty-six persons, shut up in this place for only ten hours, without any other means of ventilation than one small opening, but twenty-six were found alive, when it came to be opened; and most of these suffered afterward from malignant fevers.

The fainting of feeble persons in crowded assemblies, and the asphyxia, so often produced in those who descend into deep wells without suitable precaution, are familiar examples of the same noxious effects of this poison.

In has been usually estimated, that every individual, by respiration, and the various exhalations from the body, consumes or renders unfit for use, at least from four to five cubic feet of air per minute. This is probably a low estimate; but authors of good repute differ considerably on this point. Mr. Tredgold's remarks, in this connection, are interesting and pertinent. 'The Physiological Chemists,' says he, 'have placed in our hands a more accurate means of measuring the deterioration of air in dwelling rooms, than by the best eudiometer; for they have shown, by repeated experiments on respiration, that a man consumes about thirty-two cubic inches of oxygen in a minute, which is replaced by an equal bulk of carbonic acid from the lungs. Now, the quantity of oxygen in atmospheric air is about one fifth; hence it will be found, that the quantity rendered unfit for supporting either combustion or animal life, by one man, in one minute, is nearly one hundred and sixty cubic inches, by respiration only. But a man makes twenty respirations in a minute, and draws in and expels forty inches of air at each respiration; consequently, the total quantity contaminated in one minute, by passing through the lungs, is eight hundred cubic inches.'* The other sources of impurity, which should be considered, will increase the estimate to the amount above stated. The amount of vapor discharged from the lungs, and thus added to the impurities of the air, is said to exceed six grains per minute. It has also been shown

*Tredgold on Warming, &c., p. 69.

that air, which has been some time in contact with the skin, becomes almost entirely converted into carbonic acid.

In estimating the amount of fresh air to be supplied, we ought not merely to look at what the system will tolerate, but that amount which will sustain the highest state of health for the longest time. Dr. Reid recommends at least ten cubic feet per minute, as a suitable average supply for each individual; and states that his estimate is the result of an 'extreme variety of experiments, made on hundreds of different constitutions, supplied one by one with given amounts of air, and also in numerous assemblies and meetings, where there were means for estimating the quantity of air with which they were provided.' (*Illustrations of Ventilation*, p. 176.)

These calculations refer to adults; but the greater delicacy of the organization of children, and their feebler ability to resist the action of deleterious agents, together with their greater rapidity of respiration, demand for them at least an equal supply. Proceeding upon this basis, and multiplying the amount required per minute, by the minutes of a school session of three hours, we have eighteen hundred cubic feet for each pupil, and for two hundred and fifty pupils—the average maximum attendance in one of our large school-rooms,—450,000 cubic feet, as the requisite quantity for each half-day. The rooms contain about 22,500 cubic feet only: so that a volume of air, equal to the whole cubic contents of each room, should be supplied and removed, in some way, ten times every three hours, in order to sustain the atmosphere in them at a point which is perfectly wholesome and salubrious. For such a purpose, the present means are so entirely inadequate, that it was found that the air of a room became tainted in ten or fifteen minutes. In ordinary cases, four per cent. of the air expelled from the lungs is carbonic acid. The presence of five or six per cent. will extinguish a lamp, and with difficulty support life. It is therefore certain, that the air would become deprived of all its best properties in one school session.

Le Blanc,—who examined many public and private buildings, in France and elsewhere,—speaking of the Chamber of Deputies, where sixty-four cubic feet of fresh air *per minute*, were allowed to each individual, states, that of 10,000 parts escaping by the ventilator, twenty-five were carbonic acid; while the quantity of this gas ordinarily present in the atmosphere, is but $\frac{4}{10000}$. Dr. Reid states, that he never gave less than thirty cubic feet of air a minute, to each member of the House of Commons, when the room was crowded; and once he introduced, for weeks successively, sixty cubic feet a minute, to each member.

The very earliest impressions received by your Committee, in their visits to the school-houses, satisfied them of their lamentable condition in regard to ventilation. In some of them, they found the air so bad, that it could be perceived before reaching the school-rooms, and in the open entries; and the children, as they passed up and down the stairs, had their clothes and hair perceptibly impregnated with the fœtid poison. And these circumstances existed in houses, where the open windows testified, upon our entrance, that the Masters had endeavored to improve the atmosphere by all the means placed at their disposal. To this custom,—*that of opening windows in school hours*,—the Instructors are compelled to resort, for relief; and this expedient, certainly, is the lesser of two very great evils. Your Committee found in their visits to the school-houses, during the severest days of last winter, that no school-room had less than three, and that more than half of them had at least seven windows open for the admission of pure air. Yet this dangerous and injurious practice only mitigates the evils of bad air, by creating others. It produces colds and inflammatory complaints, and the air still remains impure, offensive, and highly deleterious; sufficiently so, to affect the delicate organization of childhood, to blight its elasticity, and destroy that healthful physical action, on which depends the vigor of maturer years.

We have already referred to some of the more violent and sudden effects of exposure to air highly charged with these noxious gasses. There are others, which are more remote, and, to a superficial observer, less noticeable. But they are not, therefore, of less importance. The grave consequences of a long-continued exposure to an atmosphere but a little below the standard of natural purity, although not immediately incompatible with life, can hardly be over-

stated. These effects are often so insidious in their approach, as hardly to attract notice; they are therefore the more necessary to be provided against in advance.

Children, confined in the atmosphere of these schools, soon lose the ruddy and cheerful complexions of perfect health which belong to youth, and acquire the sallow and depressed countenances which might reasonably be expected in over-worked factory operatives, or the tenants of apartments unvisited by the sun or air. We noticed in many faces, also, particularly towards the close of a school session, a feverish flush, so bright that it might easily deceive an inexperienced eye, and be mistaken for a healthy bloom. Alas! it was only a transient and ineffectual effort of nature to produce, by *overaction*, those salutary changes which she really wanted the *power* to accomplish.

The condition of the pupils, depressed as they are by these influences, is constantly demanding increased exertions from their Instructors, while the requirements of the age place the standard of education at an elevation sufficiently difficult of access under the most favorable circumstances.

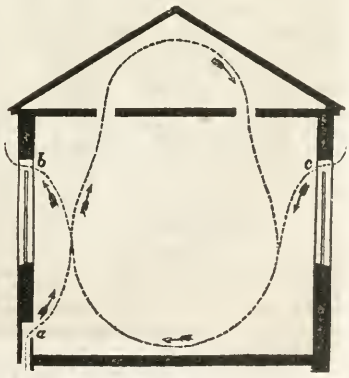
Your committee are satisfied, therefore, that the present state of the school-houses daily impairs the health of the pupils and Instructors, and the efficiency of the schools for the purposes of instruction. That its continuance will produce, not only immediate discomfort and disease, but, by its effect on the constitutions of the children, who must pass in them a large portion of those years most susceptible to physical injury, will directly and certainly reduce the amount of constitutional vigor hereafter to be possessed by that large mass of our population, which now and hereafter is to receive its education in these schools.

Although the atmosphere in the different school-houses varied very much in particular cases, either owing to the time of the visits, or from the amount of attention and intelligence of the Masters, yet in none of them was it at all satisfactory; not one of them was furnished with any useful or systematic means of ventilation. Every one, in order to be kept in a tolerably comfortable condition in this respect, required the frequent and laborious attention of the Instructors, and often to a degree which must have seriously interfered with their legitimate duties.

All of the rooms are provided with registers, in or near the ceiling, ostensibly for the purpose of discharging the foul air, but which your Committee believe to be almost entirely useless. The openings through the roof into the open air, where they exist, are so small, as to be quite inadequate to relieve the atties; so that the bad air must accumulate there, and, after becoming condensed be gradually forced back again, to be breathed over by the same lungs which have already rejected it. The condition of the apartments, after undergoing a repetition of such a process, for any length of time, can easily be imagined."

A reference to the subjoined diagram will explain at once the present state of the Ventilation of the School-Houses.

a. Heated air from furnace.
b. Hot air escaping through open window.
c. Cold air entering through open window.



It may be a matter of surprise, to some, perhaps, that the subject of ventilating our school-rooms has not long ago received the consideration necessary to remedy, or even to have prevented altogether, the evils of which we at present complain. But these evils have not always existed. It should be recollected, that the stoves and furnaces now in common use, are of comparatively modern date; and moreover, that the ample fireplaces, which they have displaced, always proved perfectly efficient ventilators, although, it is true, somewhat at the expense of comfort and fuel. But in closing the fireplaces, and substituting more economical methods of warming, evils of far greater magnitude have been entailed upon us.

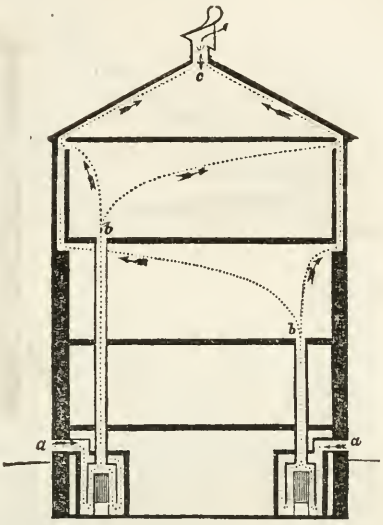
It is evident, that, in order to carry into operation any complete system of ventilation, there must be connected with it some apparatus to regulate the temperature of the air to be admitted, as well as to ensure its ample supply. Your committee have accordingly examined, with much care, this part of the subject. A majority of the buildings are furnished with 'hot-air furnaces,' situated in the cellars; the remainder with stoves, placed in the school-rooms themselves. Most of the furnaces possess great heating powers,—indeed much greater than is necessary, if the heat generated by them were properly economized, or could be made available;—but, as now constructed, they are almost worse than useless, consuming large quantities of fuel, and, at the same time, so overheating the air which passes through them, as to deprive it of some of its best qualities, and render it unsuitable for respiration. It is difficult to define, with precision, and by analysis, the changes which take place in air subjected to the action of metallic surfaces, at a high temperature. The unpleasant dryness of the air can be detected, very readily, by the senses; and the headache, and other unpleasant sensations, experienced by those who breathe such an atmosphere, would seem to prove a deficiency of oxygen and electricity. The rapid oxydation and destruction of the ironwork of the furnaces themselves, also tends to confirm this supposition.

It has been ascertained, by repeated examinations, that the temperature of the air, when it arrives at the rooms, is often as high as 500° and 600° Fahrenheit. Of course, it is entirely impossible to diffuse air, thus heated, in the parts of the room occupied by the pupils. Much of it passes rapidly out of the windows, which may be open; the rest to the ceiling, where it remains until partially cooled, gradually finding its way down by the walls and closed windows, to the lower parts of the room. The consequences are, that, while much more caloric is sent into the apartment than is requisite, many of the pupils are compelled to remain in an atmosphere which is at once cold and stagnant.

The source of the cold air for supplying the furnaces, is not always free from objection; some being drawn from the neighborhood of drains, cesspools, &c. This is a radical defect, as it must inevitably affect the whole air of the building. The boxes, which admit the cold air to the furnaces, are much too contracted; some of them being only a few inches square, when their capacity ought to be nearly as many feet. The air enters the 'cold-air' chamber of the furnace, at its top, whence it is intended to be carried down between thin brick walls, (which *should be cold*, but which are often heated to 300° Fahrenheit,) to the lower part of the furnace, and thence into the 'hot-air' chambers, and so on to the rooms above. It is obvious that the 'hot-air' chamber must be heated to a temperature far beyond that of the 'cold-air' chamber, in order to compel the air, against its own natural tendencies, to pass into it with any velocity or volume, and the very attempt to accomplish this, almost defeats itself; as, by driving the fire for this purpose, the 'cold-air' chamber becomes still hotter, so that at last the contest is decided only by the greater calorific capabilities which the iron plates possess over the brick wall. At any rate, the temperature of the iron is frequently raised to a *red* and even a *white heat*, by running the furnaces in the ordinary way. This soon destroys them, and they require consequently to be frequently renewed. In addition to all this waste of fuel and material, the folly of attempting, in any way, to warm school-rooms whose windows are freely opened to the admission of an atmosphere, at the low temperature of our winter climate, may well claim a passing notice.

The following diagrams will exhibit the mode in which the two houses already referred to, are now ventilated.

Plan of the Ventilation of the Eliot School-House.



a. a. Cold air channels to furnaces.
b. b. Heated air.
The arrows show the currents of air from the furnaces to the outlet at the roof.
c. Gas burner.

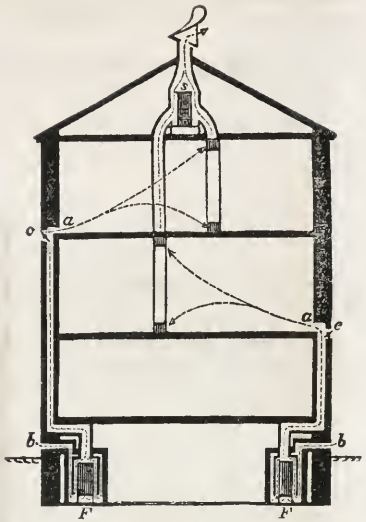
This house was entirely without any external opening through the roof. The other arrangements in it presented nothing peculiar. The 'exits and the entrances' were all as deficient in capacity as usual. The first care was to perforate the roof. This was accordingly done, and an opening of sufficient size made to carry a turn-cap of two and a half feet in diameter in its smallest part. The cold-air shaft, with an area of only one hundred and forty square inches, was enlarged so as to measure six hundred, or about four times its former size. The necessary repairing of one furnace, gave us an opportunity to enlarge its air-chamber very considerably. Water, for evaporation, was placed within a chamber of the furnace. The registers in the rooms opening into the attic, being below the ceiling, were raised to the highest point, and increased in size.

Although we think the want of connection of the cowl at the roof with the registers from the rooms by closed tubes, a decided disadvantage, we were satisfied, on the whole, with the results; as the alterations gave great relief. These changes were made during the month of February, 1846, and the only inconvenience suffered during the winter, was the occasional rise of the temperature to five or ten degrees beyond the desired point. The atmosphere has lost its bad odor almost entirely, and is of course much more agreeable. A gas burner has lately been placed in the throat of the ventilator, for use when extra power is needed.

Plan of the Ventilation of the Endicott School-House.

This house, as well as the preceding, was heated by furnaces in the cellar, one for each room. Its ventilating flues were arranged in a better manner than usual, opening into little separate chimneys which pierced the roof near the copings. But they had proved to be insufficient, both on account of their size and situation. They were also affected sensibly by down-gusts, which completely reversed their action in certain states of the atmosphere and wind.

a. a. Currents of heated air passing to the ventilating flues.
b. b. Cold air channels.
c. c. Cold air valves opening upon the hot-air currents.
F. F. Furnaces.
S. Stove in ventilator in the attic.



After enlarging the cold-air shaft to a proper size, it was thought best, (as the hot-air pipe passed through the brick wall, so that it could not easily be altered,) to make an opening through the outer wall directly behind the register which delivered the hot-air into the room. An aperture of sixteen inches square, commanded by a revolving damper, was therefore cut. It has been found to answer exceedingly well; as we now get a much larger volume, of more temperate and purer air.

For the delivery of the bad air, the following arrangements were adopted. Large wooden boxes, or air-shafts, were carried from the floor of each story into the attic, where they communicate, by closed metal pipes of the same size, with a tin cylinder, three feet in diameter, which is continued to the roof, terminating there in a large cowl. There are openings, at the top and bottom of each room, into the ventilating shafts, which can be used separately, or together, as the state of the atmosphere requires.

An air-tight coal stove, placed within the drum, in the attic, completes the apparatus. This has been only recently constructed; but from results already produced, there is no doubt of its entire ability to accomplish all that is desirable.

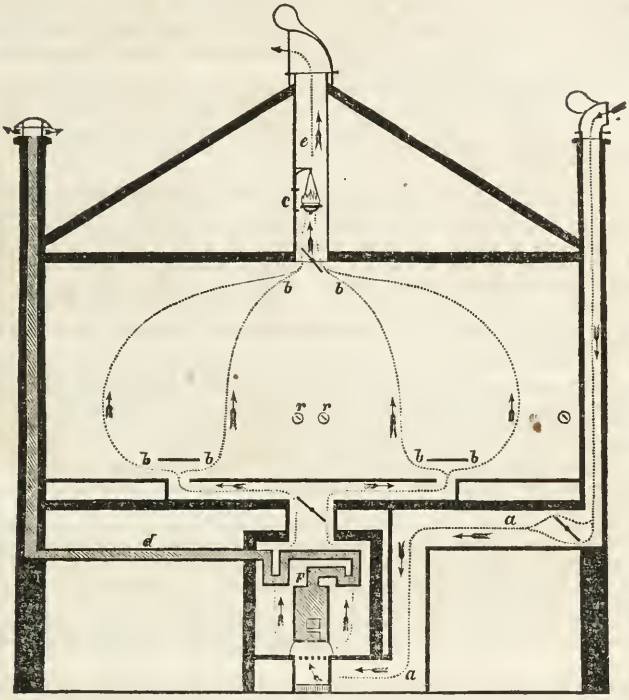
The same general statements which have been made with regard to the Grammar School-houses, will apply to the Primary School-houses. They are undoubtedly in as bad a condition, to say the least; and from their smaller capacities in proportion to the number of pupils which they contain, require particular attention.

For ventilation of these, and the Recitation rooms, which resemble them in structure and size, your Committee recommend the use of the double fireplace* or the Ventilating Stove, which will be hereafter described. If the latter be used, ventilating flues, opening at the ceiling, must be carried out of the roof.

It only remains for your Committee to describe, more particularly, the system of ventilation which they consider to be, in its general features, best adapted for the school-houses under the care of the Board. Much of it has already been anticipated in other parts of this Report; and the following plan will show, at a glance, better than any description can do, its particular features.

* See page 38 of this Essay for a diagram and description.

DIAGRAM SHOWING THE BEST GENERAL PLAN FOR WARMING AND VENTILATING THE GRAMMAR SCHOOL-HOUSES.



a. a. Cold-air channel, three feet in diameter, opening underneath the Furnace.

F. Furnace, three feet in diameter in a brick chamber ten feet square. The walls twelve inches thick.

d. Smoke flue, surmounted with Mr. Tredgold's chimney top.

b. b. b. b. Currents of warmed air, passing from the furnace, through a main flue of four feet in diameter, which supplies two branch flues. From these the air is diffused into all parts of the room, by means of the tablets which are placed over the mouths of the registers.

e. The ventilating shaft, two and a half feet in diameter, into which the foul gasses are collected, and from which they are finally discharged into the open air.

c. An Argand Lamp, to be lighted from the attic.

r. r. r. Registers, by means of which the whole circulation is controlled.

The Committee recommend attention to the following *general rules for Ventilation and Warming*.

1. The air must be taken from a pure source. The higher parts of the building are the best, as thereby all impurities, which often contaminate air taken from near the surface of the ground, are avoided.

2. In order to ensure a constant and abundant supply, the air shaft must be surmounted with a cowl or hood of some kind, with its mouth turned *towards the wind*.

3. The fresh air should in all cases be carried entirely beneath the furnace.

If the cellar is wet and the situation low, the underground culvert or channel should be of brick, laid in cement.

4. The furnace chamber should be so large that it can be entered at any time, without the necessity of taking down walls, for the purpose of repairs, or to observe the temperature. A large earthen pan for the evaporation of water should never be omitted. This should be kept always perfectly clean, and the water required to be frequently changed.

5. A thermometer should be constantly at hand, and the *temperature in the warm-air chamber should never be allowed to exceed that of boiling water.* A still lower temperature is often desirable. If this point is secured, the hot air can be conducted with perfect safety under floors, or into any part of the building, for its better diffusion.

6. The openings for the admission of the warm air into the rooms, should be as numerous as possible. The long platform occupied by the teachers, by being perforated in front for its whole length, would be an excellent diffusing surface.

7. Openings of ample size must be made in the highest points of the ceiling, to be connected at the top of the roof with a turn-cap or louvre, the former being always surmounted with a vane. It is better that the ceiling should be perforated at its centre, and there is no objection to running the ventilating shaft, at first, horizontally, if the perpendicular and terminal portion of it is of considerable length.

8. *It is highly important to have a power of some sort, within the apparatus at its top*, for the purpose of compelling constant action, and of increasing the force of the apparatus, whenever the state of the weather, or the crowding of the room, render it necessary.* For this purpose, the most convenient and economical means are furnished by a gas burner, an Argand lamp, or a stove; and one of these should be in constant readiness for use, when neither the velocity of the wind, or the low temperature of the external aimosphere are sufficient to produce the desired effect.

9. All the openings and flues for the admission of pure air, and the discharge of the foul air, should be of the *maximum* size; that is, they should be calculated for the *largest numbers* which the apartment is ever intended to accommodate.

10. Valves must be placed in all the flues, and so arranged as to be easily regulated without leaving the rooms into which they open.

11. The best average temperature for school-rooms, is from 64° to 68° Fahrenheit; this range including that of the healthiest climates in their best seasons.

For the purpose of summer ventilation, and for occasional use in moderate weather, fireplaces of good size should be constructed in all the new houses, at least. They should always be double, and furnished with large air chambers, which communicate with the open air. When not in use, they must be closed with tight boards or shutters, as they would otherwise interfere with the regular ventilation.

With these arrangements, intelligently controlled by the Teachers, your Committee believe that an atmosphere will be secured which will be perfectly agreeable and salubrious; which will lighten the labors of the Teachers, and promote the comfort, health, and happiness, of the thousands of children who are daily congregated in our Public Schools."

This Report was received, and the same Committee were "directed to adapt to each school-room such apparatus, if any, as may be required to secure to them proper ventilation in winter and summer, and to make such alterations and arrangements of the furnaces as may be required." To be able to execute this order, the Committee applied to the City Authorities for an appropriation of $4,000, which was readily granted, after an examination by a Joint Committee of the Board of Aldermen and Common Council, of the school-houses in which the improved ventilating apparatus had been introduced. The following is an extract from the Report of the Joint Committee:

* This in practice has not been found *necessary*, although it may be sometimes.

"In order to be fully satisfied, the Committee visited the Endicott School, where the apparatus was in operation. The day was exceedingly wet and disagreeable, and yet the air of the rooms was found in an unobjectionable condition. The masters fully sustained the representations of the petitioners; and from their statements, as well as from their own observations, the Committee were satisfied of the beneficial effects of said apparatus.

In order, however, to have a more full investigation of the matter, the Committee, on a subsequent day, visited the Johnson School and the Boylston School. The day was dry and cold, and they found the air in the Johnson School in a tolerably good condition. This is a girls' school; and it is well known that the pupils in such schools are neater, and attend in cleaner and more tidy apparel, than the pupils in the boys' schools.

In the Boylston School, however, the Committee found the air very disagreeable and oppressive; and they could not but feel the importance of executing some plan of relief."

If the Committee of Ways and Means,—or whatever the money-compelling power may be called—in every city, and town, and district, would satisfy themselves by actual examination, of the necessity of a more perfect system of ventilation in all school-rooms, or in all public halls where a large number of human beings are congregated for a considerable length of time, and where fires or lamps are burning, a reform would be speedily introduced in this respect.

With the means thus placed at their disposal, the Committee applied themselves diligently to the duty of ventilating the school-houses—and at the close of the year, they had the satisfaction of announcing in their Final Report, "that the Grammar School-houses of Boston are now in a better condition in respect to their ventilation, than any other Public Schools in the world." The Committee thus sum up the results of their labors.

"The diversity of arrangement and the modifications in our plans which we have been compelled by circumstances to adopt, have had their advantages, and enabled us to arrive at the best results, and to satisfy ourselves entirely in regard to the particular *set of apparatus* which we can recommend with confidence for future use as decidedly the most effective and convenient. We have therefore furnished drawings and specifications of the set of apparatus which we recommend.

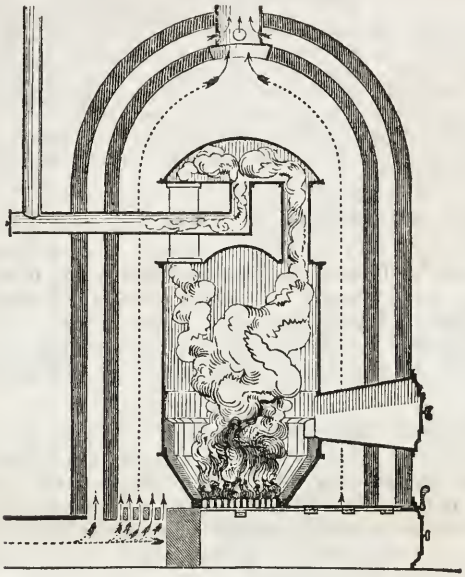
Chilson's Furnace.

Your Committee have made themselves acquainted not only with all the Furnaces which have been manufactured in this place, and its neighborhood, but with all those which have been exhibited here recently. Most of them show much ingenuity of contrivance and excellence of workmanship; but are all, so far as we can judge, inferior in many respects, to the one invented by Mr. Chilson, a model and plans of which we now exhibit, and recommend as superior to all others.

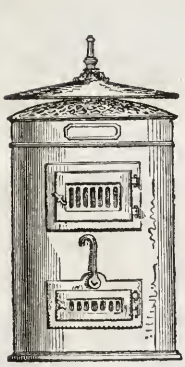
It is simple in its structure, easily managed, will consume the fuel perfectly, and with a *moderate* fire. It is fitted for wood or coal. The fire place is broad and shallow, and is lined with soapstone or fire-brick, which not only makes it perfectly safe and durable, but modifies very materially the usual effect of the fire upon the iron pot.

The principal radiating surfaces are wrought iron, of a suitable thickness for service, while at the same time the heat of the smallest fire is communicated immediately to the air chamber. The mode of setting this Furnace we consider essential; more especially the plan of admitting the air to the furnace at its lowest point, as it then rises naturally into the apartments above. This

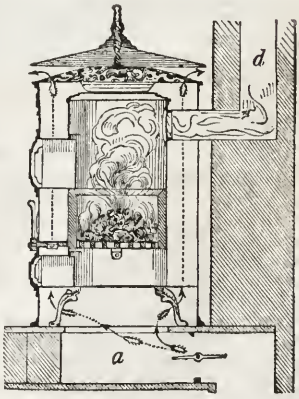
process commences as soon as the temperature is raised even a single degree. The outer walls remain cold; the floor above is not endangered, and the whole building is rapidly filled with an atmosphere which is at once salubrious and delightful.



Section of Chilson's Furnace.



Elevation.



Section.

VENTILATING STOVE.

For the houses which we found without the Hot Air Furnaces, as also for the Recitation and other single rooms, the invention of a Stove which should

answer the same purpose became essential. One was therefore contrived; and having been found in its earlier and ruder forms to be of great utility, it has since been improved in its appearance, as well as in the convenience of its management.

These Stoves are composed of two cylinders, the *inner* containing a fire chamber, which is lined with soap-stone or fire brick, while the *outer* constitutes a chamber for warming the air, which is introduced into it beneath the inner cylinder, from an air box directly connected with the external atmosphere.

They possess the following advantages:—

1. They are in fact *furnaces*, having distinct and capacious air chambers.

2. They insure, when properly set, that *supply of fresh air* which is *indispensable to the proper ventilation* of any apartment.

3. The Regulating Distributor, which is movable or fixed, as may be desired, determines with great accuracy the amount and temperature of the admitted air.

4. The outer cylinder is never hot enough to burn the person or clothing, or to be uncomfortable to those who are situated in its immediate vicinity.

5. They are constructed with the utmost regard to efficiency, durability, compactness, and neatness of appearance.

These Stoves have been furnished to the Schools whenever your Committee have required their use, and at manufacturers' prices, without any profit whatever to the inventor and patentee.

They may be used with advantage in the largest rooms, when the cellars are unfit for Furnaces, or when it is preferred to have the fire in the room itself. The Johnson, Wells, Hawes, and Winthrop School-houses are warmed entirely by them.

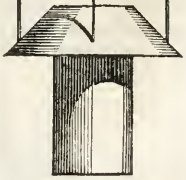
The discharging ventiducts have been made in various ways; some of wood, some of metal, and others of 'lath and plaster.' Some have opened at the ceiling only, and in but one part of the room, while others have been equally divided at opposite sides of the apartment. Our rule is this:—If the Heating Apparatus is at one end of an oblong room, the ventiduct is placed at the opposite. If the stove or furnace flue is at the middle of the longest side, the ventiducts are placed at each end, and are of course reduced to one half the size of the single one.

The *best* manner of constructing them is shown by the drawing, *Fig.* 1, and described on the following page.

There is great economy in carrying the boxes to the floor in all cases. In this way the room can be kept warm and the air pure in the coldest and most windy days.

The registers at the top and bottom can be used separately or together, as may be desired.

It is necessary and advantageous to apply some kind of cap or other covering upon the ventiducts where they terminate above the roof. It is necessary as a protection from the rain and the down blasts of wind, and it is also very advantageous to be enabled in this way to avail ourselves of the power of the wind to create an active upward current. We used at first the turncap or cowl invented by Mr. Espy, and with satisfactory results. It is undoubtedly the best movable top known; but is noisy, and somewhat liable to get out of working order. These objections to the movable tops have long been known, and various stationary tops have been invented, and have been partially successful. An improved Stationary Top, or Ejecting Ventilator, as it is called, has been invented during the past year by Mr. Emerson. It is shown in the drawing, and consists of the frustrum of a cone attached to the top of a tube, open in its whole extent, and surmounted by a fender which is supported upon rods, and answers the double purpose of keeping out the rain and of so directing or turning a blast of wind upon the structure, as that in what-

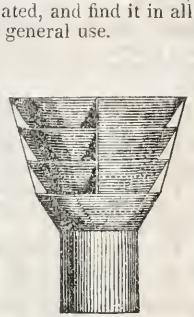


Ejecting Ventilator.

ever direction it falls, the effect, that of causing a strong upward draft, will be very uniform and constant.

Being satisfied that this Stationary Ejector possessed all the advantages of the best tops hitherto known, without the disadvantages of either of them, we have adopted it for several of the houses last ventilated, and find it in all respects satisfactory. We therefore recommend it for general use.

The Injector may generally be dispensed with, but in situations unfavorable for introducing air, it may be sometimes found convenient, or even necessary. [Mr. Emerson recommends the use of the Injector, whenever a ventilating stove or furnace is used, so as to secure the admission of a quantity of pure air, warmed by the heating surfaces of the stove or furnace, equal to the quantity of air rendered impure by respiration withdrawn by the Ejector. He refuses to allow his ventilators to be placed upon any school-house which is not supplied with fresh warm air.]



Injecting Ventilators.

Ventiducts.

The discharging ventiducts should be situated at the part of the rooms most distant from the stove or register of the furnace, and should always, if possible, be constructed in or upon an *interior* wall or partition, and an outer brick wall must, if possible, be avoided. They should be made of thoroughly seasoned sound pine boards, smoothed on the inner sides, and put together with two-inch iron screws. The outside finish may be of lath and plaster, or they may be projected backwards into a closet or entry, as shown in Figure 3. They must be carried entirely to the floor, and should be fitted at the top and bottom with a swivel blind, whose capacity is equal to that of the ventiduct into which it opens. This blind may be governed by stay rods or pulleys. The elevation gives a view of the ventiducts for a building of three stories, and shows the best mode of packing them, so as to avoid injuring the appearance of the rooms.

These ventiducts must be *kept entirely separate* to the main discharger at the roof, as any other arrangement would impair or destroy their utility.

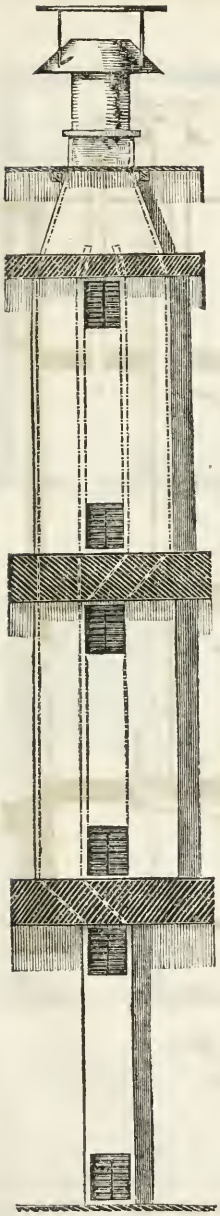
The size of the ventilators and ventiducts must correspond to the capacity of the room, and the number it is intended to accommodate.

A room containing sixty scholars is found to require a discharging duct of fourteen inches in diameter. A room for one hundred scholars requires the tube to be eighteen inches; and a room for two hundred scholars requires it to be twenty-four inches.

The *fresh air ventiducts should exceed in capacity* those for carrying off the impure air by about *fifty per cent.;* so that there will then always be a surplus or plenum supply, and the little currents of cold which press in at the crevices of the doors and windows will be entirely prevented.

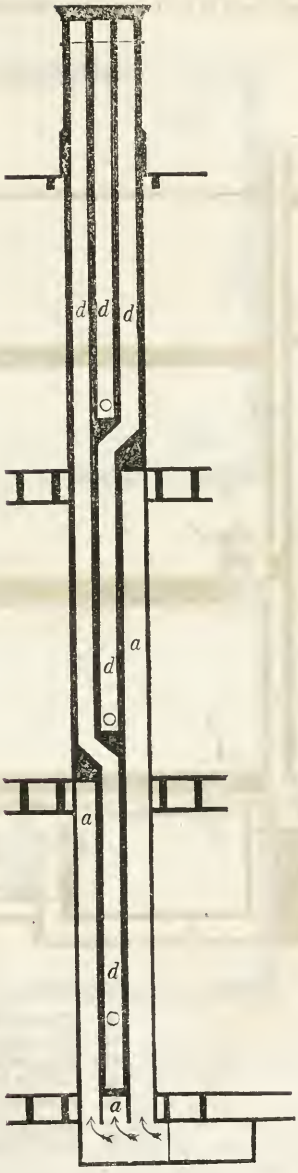
The section shown in Fig. 3 exhibits a very convenient mode of bringing the cold air to the ventilating stoves in a three story building in connection with the smoke flues.

FIGURE 1.



Elevation of Ventiducts.

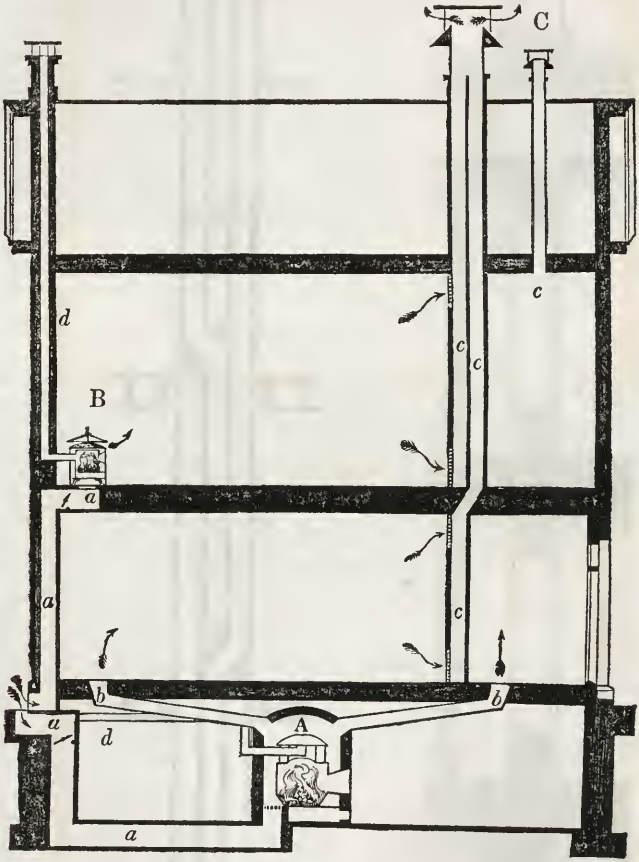
FIGURE 2.



a. Cold air ducts.
d. Smoke flues

The following section, (Fig. 3,) and plans (Fig's. 4 and 5,) exhibit at one view an example of a building of two stories warmed and ventilated by the apparatus and in the manner recommended.

FIGURE 3.

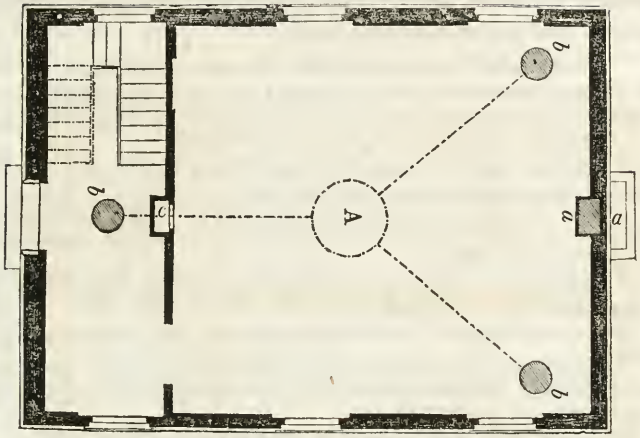


A. Chilson's Furnace.
B. The Boston School Stove.
C. Emerson's Ejector.
a. Cold or fresh air ducts.
b. Warmed air ducts.
c. Impure air ducts.
d. Smoke flues.

The letters on the plans correspond to those in the section.

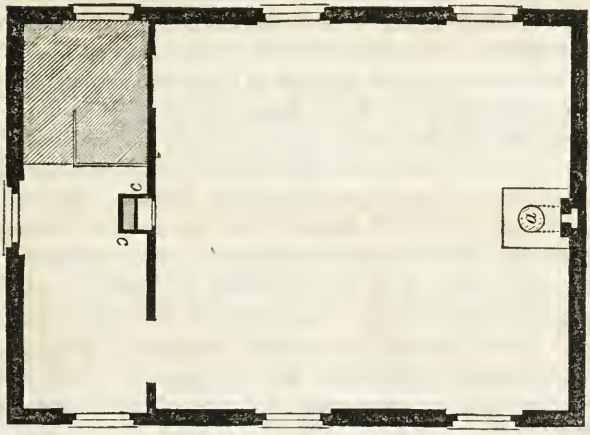
Plans of First and Second Floors.

FIGURE 4.



First Floor.

FIGURE 5.



Second Floor.

A. Furnace. a. a. a. Fresh air ducts. b. b. b. Warm air registers. c. c. c. Impure air ducts.

The modes of ventilation and heating above described and illustrated, were unanimously approved by the school committee, and recommended to the city government, for introduction into the school-houses which may be hereafter erected.

The Committee append to their Report directions for the management of the Stoves, Furnaces and Ventiducts, to which they request the attention of the masters of the Public Schools, in conformity to the rule of the Board, which requires their attention to the Ventilation of the School-houses under their care.

Rules relative to the use of the Stoves, Furnaces and Ventilators.

1. *To kindle the fire.*—Close the upper, and open the lower registers of the ventiducts; close the upper door of the stove or furnace and open the lower door; place the cover of the stove one or two inches up.
2. *After the room becomes warm*—Raise the cover of the stove three or five inches; close the lower door of the stove and open the upper door; open the registers of the ventiducts about half their width.
3. *If the room become too warm*—Open the registers full width, and raise the cover of the stove high up, keeping the upper door of the stove or furnace open, and the lower door closed.
4. *If the room become too cool*—Close the upper registers, (for a short time only;) close the upper door of the stove and open the lower door; drop the cover down within two inches of the sides.
5. Never close the top of the stove entirely down, while there is any fire therein.
6. At night, on leaving the room, let the cover of the stove down within one inch of the sides; close the lower door, and open the upper one; place all the registers open about half their width.
7. Fill the water basins every morning, and wash them twice a week.

The fires should be kept, if possible, through the night, by covering the coal. The coal to be white ash.

The prompt and liberal action of the School Committee, and of the City Government of Boston, in providing for the thorough ventilation of all the Public Schools of the City, is respectfully commended to the attention and imitation of those who have the interests of public education under their charge, in any of our cities. We know from personal observation and experience, that the same, or as effectual methods of ventilation, should be introduced into the Public Schools of most of the large cities of the country; and until improvements are introduced into the buildings where the schools are kept,—until these structures are made neat, convenient and healthy,—until every thing which offends good taste or induces a a bad state of manners or morals, are removed, it cannot be expected that those parents who understand how necessary a good school-house is to the realization of a good school, will withdraw their children from private instruction, and place them in the public schools.

In the High School-house recently erected in Hartford, Connecticut, substantially the same methods of ventilation have been adopted, with a slight variation in the place and form of the Stationary Top or Ejector.

APPARATUS.

As no school-house can be considered complete without such fixtures, and means of experiment and illustration as will enable the teacher to employ the eye and the hand of every pupil in the mastery of the studies pursued in the school, we shall hereafter give a list of such articles as we deem indispensable, and also, of such as we deem desirable, in each grade of school; and in the mean time we invite attention to the following:

EXTRACT *from a "Report on Philosophical Apparatus in the Grammar Schools" of Boston—made to the School Committee in May*, 1847.

"After taking this brief view of what has been done in the schools, we will now proceed to state what in our opinion is required to place this department of instruction upon a proper, and useful basis.

First. The schools should be supplied uniformly with appropriate apparatus of simple construction, and convenient for use.

Second. The apparatus should be adapted to illustrate, as far as practicable, the *most useful and interesting* principles pertaining to the science.

Third. A neat and convenient case, of sufficient size, with glazed doors, should be provided for each set of apparatus.

Much importance is attached by the Committee to the construction and situation of the Apparatus Case, for we consider it useless to provide appropriate apparatus, without also furnishing a proper place to contain it, and have it so arranged, that the instruments can be readily and conveniently used.

We believe the requisites of a useful case to be—

First. Sufficient size to allow of any particular article, being taken out easily and safely; otherwise, the teacher may prefer to *talk* of the principle, rather than to *illustrate* it.

Second. The shelves should not be fixtures, but capable of being moved, so as best to accommodate additional apparatus, or to allow of its being arranged to meet the convenience, or wishes of the teachers.

Third. The glazing of the doors should not extend near the floor on account of liability to accident, and also because a small closet, and a few drawers in the lower part of the case, would be more proper for containing the unseemly, and loose parts of the apparatus.

We deem it important also, that the case should stand upon the platform of the school room, because a neat case, filled with useful philosophical instruments, would add to the attractions of the school, and its prominent position would incline the teacher to have its appearance indicative of order and care. The interest of the pupils would also be awakened in anticipation of experiments, and with the apparatus thus constantly in view, their desire to become acquainted with the study would be increased. In some of the school rooms, the windows are so near together, as to prevent a proper sized case from standing on the platform; it is advisable therefore, that this matter be attended to in the future erection of School Houses.

As a part of the duty assigned them, the Committee have carefully prepared a Schedule of Philosophical Apparatus, embracing all the instruments which they consider necessary, and which having been introduced into several of the schools, and found to be efficient and useful, they submit to the Board with this Report.

The cost of a complete set of apparatus in conformity with this Schedule, will not exceed *two hundred and sixty dollars.*"

Schedule of Philosophical Apparatus for the Grammar Schools.

LAWS OF MATTER.

Apparatus for illustrating Inertia.
Pair of Lead Hemispheres, for Cohesion.
Pair of Glass Plates, for Capillary Attraction.

LAWS OF MOTION.

Ivory Balls on Stand for Collision.
Set of eight illustrations for Centre of Gravity.
Sliding Frame, for Composition of Forces.
Apparatus for illustrating Central Forces.

MECHANICS.

Complete set of Mechanicals, consisting of Pullies; Wheel and Axle; Capstan; Screw; Inclined Plane; Wedge.

HYDROSTATICS.

Bent Glass Tube for Fluid Level.
Mounted Spirit Level.
Hydrometer and Jar, for Specific Gravity.
Scales and Weights, for Specific Gravity.
Hydrostatic Bellows, and Paradox.

HYDRAULICS.

Lifting, or Common Water Pump.
Forcing Pump: illustrating the Fire Engine.
Glass Syphon Cup; for illustrating Intermitting Springs.
Glass, and Metal Syphons.

PNEUMATICS.

Patent Lever Air Pump and Clamp.
Three Glass Bell Receivers, adapted to the Apparatus.
Condensing, and Exhausting Syringe.
Copper Chamber for Condensed Air Fountain.
Revolving Jet and Glass Barrel.
Fountain Glass, Cock, and Jet for Vacuum.
Brass Magdeberg Hemispheres.
Improved Weight Lifter for upward pressure.
Iron Weight of 56 lbs. and Strap, } Weight
Flexible Tube and Connectors, } Lifter.
Brass Plate and Sliding Rod.
Bolt Head and Jar.
Tall Jar and Balloon.
Hand, and Bladder Glasses.
Wood Cylinder and Plate.
India Rubber Bag, for expansion of air.
Guinea and Feather Apparatus.
Glass Flask and Stop Cock, for weighing air.

ELECTRICITY.

Plate Electrical Machine.
Pith Ball Electrometer.
Electrical Battery of four Jars.
Electrical Discharger.
Image Plates and Figure.
Insulated Stool.
Chime of Bells.
Miser's Plate, for shocks.
Tissue Figure, Ball and Point.
Electrical Flyer and Tellurian.
Electrical Sportsman, Jar and Birds.
Mahogany Thunder House and Pistol.
Hydrogen Gas Generator.
Chains, Balls of Pith, and Amalgam.

OPTICS.

Glass Prism; and pair of Lenses.
Dissected Eye Ball, showing its arrangement.

MAGNETISM.

Magnetic Needle on Stand.
Pair of Magnetic Swans.
Glass Vase for Magnetic Swans.
Horseshoe Magnet.

ASTRONOMY.

Improved School Orrery.
Tellurian, or Season Machine.

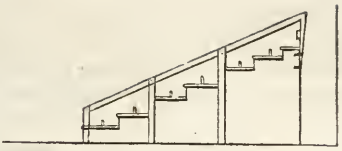
ARITHMETIC, AND GEOMETRY.

Set of 13 Geometrical Figures of Solids.
Box of 64 one inch Cubes, for Cube Root, &c.

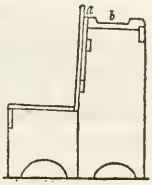
AUXILIARIES.

Tin Oiler; Glass Funnel; Sulphuric Acid.
Set of Iron Weights for Hydrostatic Paradox.

The gallery consists of 7 seats, varying in height from 7 to 9 inches, each seat 20 feet long, and provided with a support for the back. These seats will accommodate 200 children. The whole is set $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet from the wall, and is left open beneath—the space being used as a wardrobe for the youngest children.

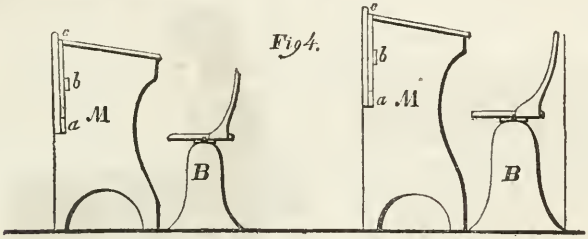


The youngest class is provided with a desk, having a trench (*b*) painted black to contain a thin layer of sand, in which to trace letters, and rude attempts at imitating forms. Each child has a slate, and there is an opening in the top of the desk (*a*) to receive it when not in use.



Since the erection of this school-house some modifications have been made in the construction of the desks and seats. Instead of the long bench for 10 or 12 pupils, each pupil has a chair similar to those represented below.

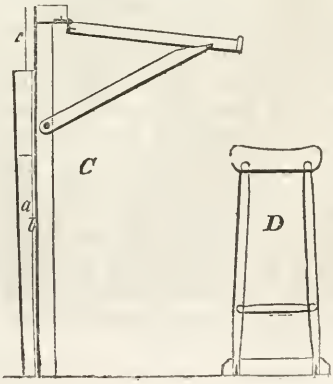
Fig 4.



The desks are $10\frac{1}{2}$ inches wide; and the uprights, or legs, are cut out on the edge towards the chair. The highest desk is 1 foot 7 inches on the lowest side; the lowest 1 foot 5 inches. The chairs are 12 and 10 inches. The seat of the chair is about 8 inches wide, and is intended to be set so that the front of the seat and the edge of the top of the desk, shall be perpendicular, one with the other, so that the scholars may sit erect, and receive the benefit of the back of the chair while writing.

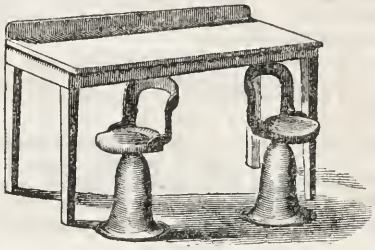
The desks (Fig. 2.) are each for eight scholars and vary in height—the highest, which are most distant from the teacher, being on the lower edge 26 inches from the floor, and requiring a seat $17\frac{1}{2}$ inches; and the lowest being nearest the teacher, being 17 inches and requiring a seat 10 inches from the floor. Each desk has an appropriate place for an inkstand, books, pen, pen-wiper, pencil, and slate for each scholar. The slates are of the best quality, bound over the corners with a band of iron made fast to the frame.

The seats are stools, without backs—all belonging to one desk, being attached to a plank, which can be moved, although it is ordinarily made fast to the floor. There is sufficient space between each stool, and between each range of stools and the adjoining desk, to allow a scholar to leave or take his seat without disturbing any other.



The monitors' seat and desk (F) are elevated about five inches above the rest, so as to command a view of each range of scholars' seats and desks. The top of the monitors' desk is hung with hinges, and supported by a movable brace.

The attention of the Trustees and especially of a committee having charge of this subject, having been recently called to the importance of having some support provided for the backs of the older as well as the youuger scholars, has resulted in the introduction of *Mott's patent revolving cast-iron chair* into several of the new Primary Schools, and into one of the Public Schools.



The chairs, except the seat, are made of cast iron, and are so constructed, that the seat and back may be turned round, while the bottom being screwed fast to the floor, remains stationary.

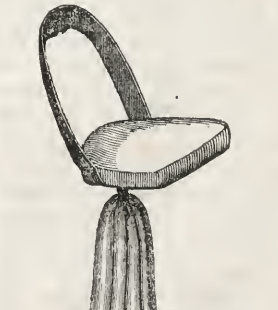


The height of the lower part of the top of the desk, is just equal to the highest part of the back of the chair, so as to allow it to pass under.

The front edge of the seat is in a perpendicular line with the edge of the top of the desk, so that the scholar is required to sit erect, when engaged in writing or studying, and the same time that part of his back which requires support is fully in contact with the chair.

These chairs are made of four sizes as follows—

No 1 is 10	in. high,	and	requires a	desk 17	in.
" 2 " 12	"	"	"	" 19½	"
" 3 " 14	"	"	"	" 22	"
" 4 " 16	"	"	"	" 24	"



These chairs are considered so exactly suited to the wants of the children, both as it regards ease in sitting, and in maintaining order while taking, or leaving their seats, that the Committee on Primary Schools have concluded to recommend them wherever new desks are needed.

J. L. Mott, 264 Water-street, has for sale *cast iron lesson stands*; and *cast iron standards* or end pieces for school desks of four different sizes; and school stoves of various patters.

The chair and standard have been recently introduced into many public and private schools in the city of New York and other places.

APPENDIX.

Lest the author should be thought to exaggerate the deficiences of school-houses as they have been heretofore constructed, and as they are now almost universally found wherever public attention has not been earnestly, perseveringly, and judiciously called to their improvement, the following extracts from recent official school documents are inserted, respecting the condition of school-houses in States where public education has received the most attention. The facts herein stated show that, while some advance has been made within a few years past, both in public opinion and public action, still the standard of actual attainment is very low, and the disastrous consequences of neglect are not sufficiently, or generally appreciated.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Extracts *from the "Report of the Secretary (Hon. Horace Mann) of the Board of Education for* 1846."

"For years the condition of this class of edifices, throughout the State, taken as a whole, had been growing worse and worse. Time and decay were always doing their work, while only here and there, with wide spaces between, was any notice taken of their silent ravages; and, in still fewer instances, were these ravages repaired. Hence, notwithstanding the improved condition of all other classes of buildings, general dilapidation was the fate of these. Industry and the increasing pecuniary ability which it creates, had given comfort, neatness, and even elegance to private dwellings. Public spirit had erected commodious and costly churches. Counties, though largely taxed, had yet uncomplainingly paid for handsome and spacious court-houses and public offices. Humanity had been at work, and had made generous and noble provision for the pauper, the blind, the deaf and dumb, the insane. Even jails and houses of correction,—the receptacles of felons and other offenders against the laws of God and man, had, in many instances, been transformed, by the more enlightened spirit of the age, into comfortable and healthful residences. The Genius of architecture, as if she had made adequate provision for all mankind, extended her sheltering care over the brute creation. Better stables were provided for cattle, better folds for sheep, and even the unclean beasts felt the improving hand of reform. But in the mean time the school-houses, to which the children should have been wooed by every attraction, were suffered to go where age and the elements would carry them.

In 1837, not one third part of the Public School-houses in Massachusetts would have been considered tenantable by any decent family, out of the poor-house, or in it. As an incentive to neatness and decency, children were sent to a house whose walls and floors were indeed painted, but they were painted, all too thickly, by smoke and filth; whose benches and doors were covered with carved work, but they were the gross and obscene carvings of impure hands; whose vestibule, after the oriental fashion, was converted into a veranda, but the metamorphosis which changed its architectural style, consisted in laying it bare of its outer covering. The modesty and chastity of the sexes, at their tenderest age, was to be cultivated and cherished, in places, which oftentimes were as destitute of all suitable accommodations, as a camp or a caravan. The brain was to be worked amid gases that stupefied it. The virtues of generosity and forbearance were to be acquired where sharp discomfort and pain tempted each one to seize more than his own share of relief, and thus to strengthen every selfish propensity.

At the time referred to, the school-houses in Massachusetts were an opprobrium to the State; and if there be any one who thinks this expression too strong, he may satisfy himself of its correctness by inspecting some of the few specimens of them which still remain.

The earliest effort at reform was directed towards this class of buildings. By presenting the idea of taxation, this measure encountered the opposition of one of the strongest passions of the age. Not only the sordid and avaricious, but even those, whose virtue of frugality, by the force of habit, had been imperceptibly sliding into the vice of parsimony, felt the alarm. Men of fortune, without children, and men who had reared a family of children, and borne the expenses of their education, fancied they saw something of injustice in being called to pay for the education of others; and too often their fancies started up into spectres of all imaginable oppression and wrong. The school districts were the scene where the contending parties arrayed themselves against each other; the school-house itself their arena. From time immemorial, it had been the custom to hold school district meetings in the school-house. Hither, according to ancient usage, the voters were summoned to come. In this forum, the question was to be decided, whether a new edifice should be erected, or whether the ability of the old one to stand upon its foundations for another season, should be tried. Regard for the health, the decent manners, the intellectual progress and the moral welfare of the children, common humanity, policy, duty, the highest worldly interests of the race, were marshalled on one side, demanding a change; selfishness, cupidity, insensibility to the wants and the welfare of others, and that fallacious plea, that because the school-house had answered the purpose so long, therefore it would continue to answer it still longer,—an argument which would make all houses, and roads, and garments, and every thing made by human hands, last forever,—resisted the change. The disgraceful contrast between the school-house and all other edifices, whether public or private, in its vicinity; the immense physical and spiritual sacrifices which its condition inflicted upon the rising generation, were often and unavailingly urged; but there was always one argument which the advocates for reform could use with irresistible effect,—the school-house itself. Cold winds, whistling through crannies and chinks and broken windows, told with merciless effect upon the opponents. The ardor of opposition was cooled by snow-blasts rushing up through the floor. Pain-imparting seats made it impossible for the objectors to listen patiently even to arguments on their own side; and it was obvious that the tears they shed were less attributable to any wrongs which they feared, than to the volumes of smoke which belched out with every gust of wind from

broken funnels and chimneys. Such was the case in some houses. In others, opposite evils prevailed; and the heat and stifling air and nauseating effluvia were such as a grown man has hardly been compelled to live in, since the time of Jonah.

Though insensible to arguments addressed to reason and conscience, yet the senses and muscles and nerves of this class of men were less hardened than their hearts; and the colds and cramps, the exhaustion and debility, which they carried home, worked mightily for their conversion to truth. Under such circumstances, persuasion became compulsory.

Could the leaders of the opposition have transferred the debate to some commodious public hall, or to their own spacious and elegant mansions, they might have bid defiance to humanity and remained masters of the field. But the party of reform held them relentlessly to the battle-ground; and there the cause of progress triumphed, on the very spot where it had been so long dishonored.

During the five years immediately succeeding the report made by the Board of Education to the Legislature, on the subject of school-houses, the sums expended for the erection or repair of this class of buildings fell but little short of *seven hundred thousand dollars.* Since that time, from the best information obtained, I suppose the sum expended on this one item to be about *one hundred and fifty thousand dollars annually.* Every year adds some new improvement to the construction and arrangement of these edifices.

In regard to this great change in school-houses,—it would hardly be too much to call it a *revolution,*—the school committees have done an excellent work,—or rather, they have begun it;—it is not yet done. Their annual reports, read in open town meeting, or printed and circulated among the inhabitants, afterwards embodied in the Abstracts and distributed to all the members of the government, to all towns and school committees have enlightened and convinced a State.

NEW-YORK.

EXTRACT *from the "Annual Report of the Superintendent (Hon. Samuel Young) of Common Schools, made to the Legislature, January* 13, 1844."

"The whole number of school-houses visited and inspected by the county superintendents during the year was 9,368: of which 7,685 were of framed wood; 446 of brick; 523 of stone, and 707 of logs. Of these, 3,160 were found in good repair; 2,870 in ordinary and comfortable repair, and 3,319 in bad repair, or totally unfit for school purposes. The number furnished with more than one room was 544, leaving 8,795 with one room only. The number furnished with suitable play-grounds is 1,541; the number not so furnished, 7,313. The number furnished with a single privy is, 1,810; those with privies containing separate apartments for male and female pupils, 1,012; while the number of those not furnished with *any privy* whatever, is 6,423. The number suitably furnished with convenient seats, desks, &c., is reported at 3,282, and the number not so furnished, at 5,972. The number furnished with proper facilities for ventilation is stated at 1,518; while the number not provided with these essential requisites of health and comfort is 7,889.

No subject connected with the interests of elementary instruction affords a source of such mortifying and humiliating reflections as that of the condition of a large portion of the school-houses, as presented in the above enumeration. One-third only of the whole number visited, were found in good repair; another third in ordinary and comfortable condition

only in this respect—in other words, barely sufficient for the convenience and accommodation of the teachers and pupils; while the remainder, consisting of 3,319, were to all intents and purposes unfit for the reception of man or beast.

But 544 out of 9,368 houses visited, contained more than one room; 7,313 were destitute of any suitable play-ground; nearly six thousand were unfurnished with convenient seats and desks; nearly eight thousand destitute of the proper facilities for ventilation; and upwards of six thousand without a privy of any sort; while of the remainder but about one thousand were provided with privies containing different apartments for male and female pupils! And it is in these miserable abodes of accumulated dirt and filth, deprived of wholesome air, or exposed without adequate protection to the assaults of the elements, with no facilities for necessary exercise or relaxation, no convenience for prosecuting their studies; crowded together on benches not admitting of a moment's rest in any position, and debarred the possibility of yielding to the ordinary calls of nature without violent inroads upon modesty and shame; that upwards of two hundred thousand children, scattered over various parts of the State, are compelled to spend an average period of eight months during each year of their pupilage! Here the first lessons of human life, the incipient principles of morality, and the rules of social intercourse are to be impressed upon the plastic mind. The boy is here to receive the model of his permanent character, and to imbibe the elements of his future career; and here the instinctive delicacy of the young female, one of the characteristic ornaments of the sex, is to be expanded into maturity by precept and example! Is it strange, under such circumstances, that an early and invincible repugnance to the acquisition of knowledge is imbibed by the youthful mind; that the school-house is regarded with unconcealed aversion and disgust, and that parents who have any desire to preserve the health and the morals of their children, exclude them from the district school, and provide instruction for them elsewhere?

If legislation could reach and remedy the evil, the law-making power would be earnestly invoked. But where the ordinary mandates of humanity, and the laws of parental feeling written by the finger of heaven on the human heart, are obliterated or powerless, all statutory provisions would be idle and vain. In some instances during the past year, comfortable school-houses have been erected to supply the place of miserable and dilapidated tenements which for years had been a disgrace to the inhabitants. Perhaps the contagion of such worthy examples may spread; and that which seems to have been beyond the influence of the ordinary impulses of humanity, may be accomplished by the power of example or the dread of shame.

The expense of constructing and maintaining convenient buildings, and all other proper appliances for the education of the young, is a mere trifle when contrasted with the beneficial results which inevitably follow.

Of all the expenditures which are calculated to subserve the wants or gratify the caprices of man, there are none which confer such important and durable blessings as those which are applied to the cultivation and expansion of the moral and intellectual powers. It is by such cultivation that human happiness is graduated, and that from the most debased of the savage tribes, nation rises above nation in the scale of prosperity and civilization. The penuriousness which has been manifested on this subject, and the reckless profligacy exhibited on others, is strongly characteristic of the past. In future times, when the light of science shall be more widely diffused, and when the education of the young shall claim and receive the consideration it deserves, a retrospection to the records of the past will exhibit preceding generations in no enviable point of view.

The following remarks and extracts from the Reports of the special visiters appointed by the State Superintendent (Hon. John C. Spencer) in each of the counties, for 1840, and for 1841, are taken from Part I of that admirable work, the "School and the Schoolmaster," Part I, by Prof. (now Bishop) Potter, and Part II, by George B. Emerson, Esq., of Boston.

"I ask, then, *first*, are our common schools places of agreeable resort, calculated to promote health, and to connect pleasant associations with study?

Ans. Say the visiters, in one of the oldest and most affluent towns of the south-eastern section of the state, 'It may be remarked, generally, that the school-houses are built in the old style, are too small to be convenient, and, with one exception, too near the public roads, generally having no other play-ground.' Twelve districts were visited in this town.—*See Report of Visiters* (1840), p. 47.

Say the visiters of another large and wealthy town in the central part of the state, 'Out of the 20 schools they visited, 10 of the school-houses were in bad repair, and many of them not worth repairing. In none were any means provided for the ventilation of the room. In many of the districts, the school-rooms are too small for the number of scholars. The location of the school-houses is generally pleasant. There are, however, but few instances where play-grounds are attached, and their condition as to privies is very bad. The arrangement of seats and desks is generally very bad, and inconvenient to both scholars and teachers. Most of them are without backs.'—P. 28 (*Rep.*, 1840.)

From another town in the north-western part of the state, containing a large population, and twenty-two school districts, the visiters report of district No. 1, that the school-house is large and commodious, but scandalously cut and marked; the school-room but tolerably clean; the privies very filthy, and no means of ventilation but by opening the door or raising the window. No. 2 has an old school-house; the room not clean; seats and desks well arranged, but cut and marked; no ventilation; the children healthy, but not clean. No. 3 has an old frame building, but warm and comfortable. No. 4 has a very poor, dilapidated old frame school-house, though the inhabitants are generally wealthy for that country. No. 5 has a frame school-house, old and in bad condition; school-room not clean; seats and desks not convenient; No. 6 has a frame school-house, old and in bad condition; the school-room is not clean; no cup or pail for drinking water. No. 7 has a log school-house, in a very bad condition; desks and seats are inconvenient. 'Here, too,' say the visiters, 'society is good, and people mostly in easy circumstances, but the school-house very unbecoming such inhabitants. It does not compare well with their dwellings.' No. 8, say the visiters, is 'a hard case.' No. 9 has a frame house in good condition and in a pleasant location, but is 'too small for the number of children.' No. 10 has a log school-house. No. 11 has a 'log shanty for a school-house, not fit for any school.' No. 12 a log house. No. 13 has a log shanty, in bad condition, not pleasantly located, school-room not clean. 'The school-house or *hovel* in this district is so cold in winter, so small and inconvenient, that little can be done towards preserving order or advancing education among so many scholars; some poor inhabitants and some in good circumstances; might have a better school-house.' No. 14 has a good frame house, in good condition, pleasant location, with ample and beautiful play-ground; school-room in clean condition. The visiters add, 'In this district the inhabitants are

poor, and the scholars attend irregularly; *the house was built by one man in low circumstances, who has a large family of boys to educate; a noble act.*' No. 15 has a frame house, in a good, warm, and comfortable condition, with a pleasant and retired location and a play-ground. No. 16 has a log shanty for a school-house. No. 17, 'no regular school-house other than some old log house.' No. 18, no school-house. No. 19, a log shanty. No. 20 and 21 are new districts. No. 22 has a frame school-house, in good repair and pleasantly situated. Thus, out of twenty-two school-houses, not more than *five* are reported as respectable or comfortable; none have any proper means of ventilation; eight are built of logs; and but one of them, according to the visiters, has a privy.—*Report* (1840), p. 142.

It is also a subject of frequent complaint in these reports, that the seats are too high (too high, say the visiters in one case, for a man of six feet, and all alike), and are, therefore, uncomfortable for the children, as well as productive of much disorder. 'We have found,' says the report from one town, 'except in one school, all the seats and desks much too high, and in that one they were recently cut down at our recommendation. In many of our schools, a considerable number of children are crowded into the same seat, and commonly those seated beyond the entering place have no means of getting at their seats but by climbing over those already seated, and to the ruin of all regard to cleanliness.'

'We have witnessed much uncasiness, if not suffering, among the children, from the dangling of their legs from a high seat, and, with the one exception, have seen them attempting to write on desks so high that, instead of the elbow resting to assist the hand in guiding the pen, the whole arm has, of necessity, been stretched out; for, if they did not this, they must write rather by guess than sight, unless some one may have the fortune to be near-sighted, and, from this defect, succeed in seeing his work. This is a great evil, and ought to be remedied before we complain of the incompetency of teachers.'—*Report* (1841), p. 38.

These specimens will serve to show how far many of the school-houses, in this state, are pleasant places of resort, or study, and in what degree they are likely to inspire a respect for education, or a desire to enjoy and improve its advantages. The condition and aspect of the building, with its appendages and surrounding landscape, are inseparably associated, in a child's mind, with his first day at school, and his first thoughts about education. Is it well, then, that these earliest, most lasting, and most controlling associations, should be charged with so much that is offensive? Is it to be expected, that the youthful mind can regard that as the cause, next to religion, most important of all others, which is upheld and promoted, in such buildings, as the district school-house usually is? Among the most comfortless and wretched tenements, which the pupil ever enters, he thinks of it with repugnance; the tasks which it imposes, he dreads; and he at length takes his leave of it, as of a prison, from which he is but too happy to escape.

This seems to me to be the greatest evil connected with our school-houses. But their deleterious effect on health, is also to be considered. Air which has been once respired by the lungs, parts with its healthy properties, and is no longer fit for use. Hence a number of persons, breathing the air of the same apartment, soon contaminate it, unless the space is very large, or unless there is some provision for the introduction of fresh, as well as the exclusion of foul air. This ventilation is especially important for school-houses, since they are usually small in proportion to the number of scholars; the scholars remain together a long while at once, and are less cleanly in their personal habits than adults. Yet, important as it is, probably not one common school in fifty, in this state,

will be found supplied with adequate means to effect it. The cracks and crevices, which abound in our school-houses, admit quite enough of cold air in winter, but not enough of fresh. What is wanted at that season, for both health and economy, is a constant supply of fresh warm air; and this is easily obtained by causing the air, as it enters from without, to pass through heated flues, or over heated surfaces.

It is also important, to the health of scholars and teachers in common schools, that the rooms should be larger and have higher ceilings; and that much more scrupulous attention should be paid to the cleanliness of both the room and its inmates. 'An evil,' say the visiters of one of the towns, 'greater than the variety of school-books or the want of necessary apparatus, is having school-rooms so unskilfully made and arranged. Of our 13 school-rooms, only 3 are ten feet high, and of the residue only one is over eight feet. The stupidity arising from foul, oft-breathed air, is set down as a grave charge against the capacity of the scholars or the energy of the teacher. A room for 30 children, allowing 12 square feet for each child, is low at 10 feet, and for every additional ten children an extra foot in elevation is absolutely necessary, to enable the occupants of the room to breathe freely.'—*Report* (1841), p. 38.

Are common schools so conducted, as to *promote habits of neatness and order, and cultivate good manners and refined feelings?*

From the quotations already made from the reports of visiters, it appears that the school-rooms, in many cases, were not clean; and the same thing is often alleged of the children. I will add but one other passage, to which I happen to open on p. 39 of the Report (1840). It relates to a town containing 24 school districts, of which 16 were visited. Of these 16, one quarter are represented to have been almost entirely regardless of neatness and order, viz.: No. 4 'has a dirty school-room, and the appearance of the children was dirty and sickly.' No. 2 'has a dirty school-room, inconveniently arranged, and *ventilated all over*;' the children 'rather dirty,' and no means of supplying fresh water except from the neighbor's pails and cups. No. 3 has 'an extremely dirty school-room, without ventilation, the children not clean, and no convenience for water.' No. 24 'has a school-house out of repair, dirty, and inconvenient in its arrangements.'

It is also a subject of almost universal complaint, that the *school-houses are without privies.* On an average, probably not more than one in twenty, of the school-houses throughout the state, has this appendage; and in these, it was almost invariably found, by the visiters, to be in a bad state. This fact speaks volumes, of the attention, which is paid at these schools, to delicacy of manners, and refinement of feeling. None but the very poorest families think of living without such a convenience at home; and a man, who should build a good dwelling-house, but provide no place for retirement when performing the most private offices of nature, would be thought to give the clearest evidence of a coarse and brutal mind. Yet respectable parents allow their children to go to a school where this is the case; and where the evil is greatly aggravated by the fact, that numbers of both sexes are collected, and that, too, at an age of extreme levity, and when the youthful mind is prone to the indulgence of a prurient imagination. Says one of the visiters (*Report*, 1840, p. 77), 'In most cases in this town, the scholars, male and female, are turned promiscuously and simultaneously into the public highway, without the shelter of so much (in the old districts) as a 'stump' for a covert to the calls of nature. The baneful tendency, on the young and pliant sensibilities, of this barbarous custom, are truly lamentable.' So the visiters of one of the largest and oldest counties: 'We regret to perceive that many of the districts have neglected to erect privies for the use of the children at

school. This is a lamentable error. The injury to the taste and morals of the children which will naturally result from this neglect, is of a character much more serious than the discomfort which is obviously produced by it.'—(*Report*, 1840, p. 131.)"

VERMONT.

EXTRACT *from the "First Annual Report of the State Superintendent (Hon. Horace Eaton,) of Common Schools, October*, 1846," *made to the Legislature.*

"It might occur to any one in travelling through the State, that our school-houses are almost uniformly located in an uninteresting and unsuitable spot, and that the buildings themselves too generally exhibit an unfavorable, and even repulsive aspect. Yet by giving some license to the imagination it might be supposed that, notwithstanding their location and external aspect were so forbidding, the internal appearance would be more cheerful and pleasant—or at least, that the arrangement and construction within would be comfortably adapted to the purposes which the school-house was intended to fulfil. But an actual inspection of by far the greatest number of the school-houses in the State, by County Superintendents, discloses the unpleasant fact, that ordinarily the interior does but correspond with the exterior, or is, if possible, still worse. A very large proportion of these buildings throughout the State must be set down as in a miserable condition. The melancholy fact is established by the concurrent report of all our County Superintendents, that in every quarter of the State they are, as a class, altogether unsuited to their high purposes. Probably nine-tenths of them are located upon the line of the highway; and as the geographical centre of the district usually determines their situation, aside from the relation with the road, it is a rare chance that one is not placed in an exposed, unpleasant and uncomfortable spot. In some cases—especially in villages—their location seems to be determined by the worth, or rather by the *worthlessness* of the ground on which they stand—that being selected which is of the least value for any other purpose. Seldom or never do we see our school-houses surrounded by trees or shrubbery, to serve the purpose which they might serve so well—that of delighting the eye, gratifying the taste, and contributing to the physical comfort, by shielding from the scorching sun of summer, and breaking the bleak winds of winter. And from buildings thus situated and thus exposed, pupils are turned out into the streets for their sports, and for other purposes still more indispensable. What better results could be expected under such a system than that our 'girls should become hoydens and our boys blackguards?' Indeed it would be a happy event, if in no case results still more melancholy and disastrous than this were realized.

But this notice of *ordinary* deficiencies does not cover the whole ground of error in regard to the situation of school-houses. In some cases they are brought into close connection with positive nuisances. In a case which has fallen under the Superintendent's own personal observation, one side of the school-house forms part of the fence of a hog-yard, into which, during the summer, the calves from an extensive dairy establishment have been thrown from time to time, (disgusting and revolting spectacle!) to be rent and devoured before the eyes of teacher and pupils—except such portions of the mutilated and mangled carcasses as were left by the animals to go to decay, as they lay exposed to the sun and storm. It is true the windows on the side of the building adjoining the yard, were generally observed to be closed, in order to shut out the

almost insupportable stench which arose from the decomposing remains. But this closure of windows could, in no great degree, 'abate the nuisance;' for not a breath of air could enter the house from any direction but it must come saturated with the disgusting and sickening odor that loaded the atmosphere around. It needs no professional learning to tell the deleterious influence upon health, which must be exerted by such an agency, operating for continuous hours.

Such cases, it is hoped and believed, are exceedingly rare. But it is much to be feared that the usual exemption enjoyed by teachers and pupils, from even such outrages upon their senses and sensibilities, as have been detailed, is to be attributed to the fact that such arrangements are not ordinarily convenient, rather than to any prevailing conviction of their impropriety, or any general and settled purpose to avoid them. The case is named as at least strong evidence that the pertinency of considerations, involving a regard either to taste, comfort, or even health itself, is generally overlooked or disregarded, in fixing upon a site for a school-house. At all events these purposes are all *exposed* to be violated under the prevailing neglect of districts to secure the possession of sufficient ground for a yard around the school-house. But it would seem unnecessary to urge, beyond the bare suggestion, the importance of providing for school-houses, a comfortable location, a sufficient yard and play-ground, a wood-house and other out-buildings, a convenient access to water, and the surrounding of the premises with shade-trees which might serve for shelter, as well as delight the eye, and aid to render the school-house—what it should be—one of the most attracting and delightful places of resort upon the face of the earth. It should be such, that when the child shall have changed into the gray-haired man, and his memory wanders back through the long vista of vanished years, seeking for some object on which it may repose, this shall be the spot where it shall love to rest.

In the construction of the school-house—embracing its material, style of architecture, and finish—as little care and taste are exhibited, as might be expected from the indifference manifested in regard to its location and surrounding circumstances. Cheapness of construction seems, in most cases, to be the great governing principle, which decides upon its materials, its form, and all its internal arrangements. No complaint on this score could justly be made, if the general condition of these buildings were clearly and fairly attributed to want of ability. But while our other edifices, both public and private, have improved in elegance, convenience, and taste, with the increasing wealth of our citizens, our school-houses linger in the rear and bear the impress of a former age. In this respect.

> 'That which in days of yore we were
> We at the present moment are.'

Low walls might be instanced as *one* of the prevailing defects in school-house architecture. The quantity of air contained in a school-room of the usual height, is so small as to be soon exhausted of its oxygen; and the dullness, headache and depression which succeed to this result, are but too well known and too often felt, although they may fail of being attributed to their true cause. And why should our children be robbed of a comfortable supply of that pure and wholesome air, with which our Creator, in the largeness and richness of his bounty, has surrounded the earth and filled the sky? But if the condition of the house is such, as in part to prevent the injurious effects arising from a deficiency of pure air, by means of broken windows and gaping crevices—then colds, coughs and as the ultimate and crowning result—consumption—

(and of this disease, what thousands of cases have had their foundations laid in the school-house!) must be the consequence of this sort of exposure. This is true in regard to *all* classes and conditions of pupils. But it should be distinctly kept in mind, although it is ordinarily overlooked and forgotten, that children accustomed to be comfortably protected against cold or vicissitudes of temperature, at home, will inevitably suffer the more when exposed to them in the school-house. And here is an additional reason why these structures should be improved, as our dwelling houses are generally becoming more comfortable.

But there is not room here for details—not even to exhibit *this* topic in all its important bearings. And it has been thus hinted at only to prove that the general charge of faulty construction is not wholly unfounded.

It was the purpose of the Superintendent to discuss at some length, the pernicious influence exerted, both upon the health of pupils, and their progress in learning, by the miserable structures in which the State abounds, but the extent of the remarks already made precludes it.

One cause of the prevailing fault in regard to the construction and internal arrangement of school-houses, doubtless, is the want of proper models. Districts, when about erecting a school-house, cannot well do more than follow the examples before them. To form the plan of a proper school-house—one well adapted to all the various ends which should be sought, such as the convenience, comfort, and health of pupils, convenience for supervision and conduct of the school, and facilities for the most successful prosecution of study—would require such an extent of observation and so full an acquaintance with the laws of health, of mind and morals—and then such a skill in designing a structure in which all the necessary conditions should be observed and secured, that it would be unreasonable to expect that a district could command them, without an opportunity to avail itself of the experience and observation of others. And districts have almost universally felt this lack of guidance. But it is believed that hereafter, information on the subject of school-house architecture, will be more accessible; and if, as a first step, some one district in every town in the State would avail itself of the necessary information, and make a vigorous effort to secure the erection of a well located, well planned, and well constructed school-house, they would perform an act of high public beneficence, as well as confer upon themselves an inestimable blessing. And shall not one or two years realize the accomplishment of this noble purpose? What district will lead the van?

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

EXTRACTS *from the "Report of the Commissioner, (Prof. Haddock, of Dartmouth College) of Common Schools, to the Legislature of New Hampshire, June Session*, 1847."

"The success of our whole system depends as much on a thorough reform in the construction and care of school-houses as upon any other single circumstance whatever.

It is wonderful, and when their attention is called to it, strikes the inhabitants of the Districts themselves as really unaccountable, that careful and anxious parents have been content to confine their children for so many hours a day through a large part of the severest and most trying seasons of the year, in houses so ill constructed, so badly ventilated, so imperfectly warmed, so dirty, so instinct with vulgar ideas, and so utterly repugnant to all habits of neatness, thought, taste, or purity. There are multitudes of houses in the State, not only inconveniently located, and awkwardly planned, but absolutely dangerous to health and morals.

And it has struck me with the greater surprise, that this is true not only of the thinly peopled parts of the State, but of flourishing villages. In one of the largest towns the principal District School was kept, the last winter, in a dilapidated, rickety, uncouth, slovenly edifice, hardly more comfortable than some barns within sight of it. In one enterprising village the school-house, as I looked at it from a little distance, appeared decidedly the shabbiest and most neglected building, not to say dwelling, within reach of my eye. I have been in houses, which no scrubbing could keep clean; they were never made to be clean: and this, in places, where private taste is adorning the town with the ornaments of architecture and enriching the country with the fruits of rural industry.

It is, however, encouraging to find, that a better feeling is coming to prevail on this subject. Many districts are rebuilding, and, in most instances, upon an improved plan. Some examples have been set of good judgment and liberal expenditure for this important object. And it is hoped, that other districts will be stimulated to imitate them.

Whenever a new house is to be erected, it should first be carefully located, so as best to accommodate the whole district, and by all means, on an open, healthy, agreeable site, with ample room about it on all sides, and out of the way of floods of water or of dust. The young spirit loves the free air and the cheerful day; and when confined, as for some six hours it must be, the confinement should be as little unnatural and unwholesome as possible. The cheapest medicine for the body is good air and plenty of room; and the most indispensable pre-requisite to sane thought is a beautiful and happy place to think in. The house itself should be large; so large that the vacant floor may about equal the space occupied by the seats. The difference of ten feet in length is not great in point of expense; in point of comfort it may be incalculable. The walls should be twelve feet high at least; and an opening made in the ceiling for the escape of the overheated and corrupted air. This should be made to be closed at pleasure. Not more than two scholars should sit on one seat; and the seats should be roomy and easy. These are the great points in a school-house. If the architecture is neat, and the grounds tastefully laid out, and every depredation immediately repaired, every stain removed at once, not only will the house answer the essential purposes of health and comfort, but prove a material auxiliary in elevating the minds and correcting the habits of those who receive their education in it."

CONNECTICUT.

EXTRACT *from the "First Annual Report of the Secretary of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools, for* 1838-39.

"In the whole field of school improvement there is no more pressing need of immediate action than here. I present with much hesitation, the result of my examinations as to several hundred school-houses in different parts of the State. I will say, generally, that the location of the school-house, instead of being retired, shaded, healthy, attractive, is in some cases decidedly unhealthy, exposed freely to the sun and storm, and in nearly all, on one or more public streets, where the passing of objects, the noise and the dust, are a perpetual annoyance to teacher and scholar, —that no play-ground is afforded for the scholar except the highway,— that the size is too small for even the *average* attendance of the scholars, —that not one in a hundred has any other provision for a constant supply of that indispensable element of health and life, pure air, except the rents and crevices which time and wanton mischief have made; that the

seats and desks are not, in a majority of cases, adapted to children of different sizes and ages, but on the other hand are calculated to induce physical deformity, and ill-health, and not in a few instances (I state this on the authority of physicians who were professionally acquainted with the cases,) have actually resulted in this—and that in the mode of warming rooms, sufficient regard is not had either to the comfort and health of the scholar, or to economy.

That I have not stated these deficiencies too strongly, I beg leave to refer you to the accompanying returns, respecting the condition of school-houses in more than eight hundred districts in the State, and in more than forty particulars in each. These returns were made from actual inspection and measurement of school-houses by teachers and others. An abstract of them in part will be found annexed, together with extracts from letters received from school officers on the subject. I might accumulate evidence of the necessity of improvement here for every district in the State. Without improvement in many particulars which concern the health, the manners and morals of those who attend school, it is in vain to expect that parents who put a proper estimate, not only on the intellectual, but the physical and moral culture of their children, will send to the district school. It is not to be wondered at that children acquire a distaste for study and a reluctance to attend school, so long as school-houses are associated with hours of prolonged weariness and actual suffering from a scanty supply of pure air, and seats and desks so arranged and constructed as to war against their physical organization. These things are not forgotten by parents in the construction of churches, nor have the public neglected to provide for a constant supply of pure air in the work-shops and sleeping-rooms of the State Prison at Wethersfield, or the County Gaol at Hartford."

The following extracts are from the communications referred to in the above Report:

"In one hundred and four districts in one county, there are thirty-one school-houses which may be considered as being in very good repair, and seventy-three of which are more or less out of repair. Among them there are but seven which are constructed in such a manner as to be comfortable and convenient. In three the scholars all face the teacher, and in six or seven others, they sit so as to face the centre of the room. In the others the desks are confined to the walls on three sides of the room, and have seats in front of them. By this arrangement the larger scholars sit with their backs to the teacher, except while engaged in reading and spelling. In the first position they have no support at all for the back, and in the latter, the edge of the desk is all that is afforded. The younger scholars are seated in the centre of the room on low seats, which in eighty districts are provided with backs. In the remaining twenty-four districts, these seats have not backs. In eight districts, two rooms are occupied by the school, and in ninety-six districts, only one room. The rooms used, will average about twenty feet square, and eight feet in height. In seventy-five districts, close stoves are used for warming the houses, and in twenty-three, stoves and fire-places, and in six, fire-places alone. In none of these houses has any provision been made for ventilation.

In no case is a scraper, or a mat for the feet provided. In one hundred districts they have no play-ground except the highway, or the land of individuals. In about forty districts a few shade trees may be found within twenty or thirty rods of the school-house. Eighty-nine houses stand in the highway, in all or in part. One district has provided globes for the use of the school, and made arrangements for procuring philosophical and chemical apparatus. Twenty-nine districts have blackboards, and

three have some maps, and one, a clock. All are destitute of a library, thermometer, and recitation rooms. In country districts, the entry serves as a wood-room, and place for hats and cloaks. In country towns, from thirty to fifty scholars are usually crowded into a room calculated for only twenty or twenty-five.

In another county, out of sixty-two school houses, nineteen are located in the highway, and the ground on which the others stand cannot be worth on an average twelve dollars for each. Thirteen are bounded by two roads. Sixteen are in noisy and improper neighborhoods. None have any shade trees, or any of those adornments which are resorted to to make our homes pleasant and healthy. Twenty-six are in good repair; nineteen are much out of repair; one hundred and seventy-six squares of glass are broken; and very few are sufficiently protected from cold air from beneath; twenty-five have crevices to admit the wind from every quarter. Thirty-eight have never been white-washed; none have blinds and other arrangements to admit the proper degree of light; little or no provisions are made for securing habits of neatness and order, by proper places for hats, cloaks, &c. &c.; in forty-eight instances the desks are attached to the walls, so that scholars sit with their backs to the teacher while engaged in their studies; and when they face him they are obliged to lean, if they rest at all, against the edge of the desk for support; in fifty-two, the seats are without backs, and that in most, the seats are not of proper elevation for children of different sizes, nor are they so adapted to the desks that the scholars could write without violating the laws of their organization, and inducing deformity and ill-health; thirty-eight out of the sixty-four are altogether unprovided with the means of ventilation, except through the crevices about the floors and sides of the room.

In another county, out of fifty school-houses taken at hazard from the returns for the county, forty are all or in part in the public highway; twelve are in situations which are wet and disagreeable; not one of these have any play-ground 'except the gardens and orchards' of neighbors; but two are ventilated by an opening in the ceiling; in thirty, the scholars face the walls, or the windows which are in all cases without blinds or shades; in five only are the seats and desks properly arranged and of proper heights, so as to favor the health, the comfort, or the progress of the pupils; and in all, the dimensions of the room are altogether too contracted for even the average attendance of the district.

In another county, out of forty school-houses, but one has any provision for ventilation; but seven have seats with backs in any case; the average height of the school-rooms is seven feet; the average breadth seventeen and a half feet; the average length, eighteen and a half feet, while the average attendance is over thirty children to each.

I have been greatly discouraged by the entire destitution of maps, globes, and other school apparatus; by witnessing among the *small scholars* great suffering, and the probable commencement of disease and deformity, for want of proper support for the back and feet; and an almost entire neglect of those out-door conveniences which a civilized people are said never to forget or allude to. But the ill location of the school-houses, bad seats and desks, the entire want of school-libraries, globes, and (often) of suitable books, might be the better borne with, were not the children shut out from any tolerable enjoyment of the vital air of heaven. Fifty, sixty, or seventy little ones are often crowded together into a close room quite insufficient to give pure air to one quarter of the number."

"As I passed from one school society to another, I had an opportunity to see many of the school-houses; for they stand generally on the high-

way, and some near the travelled path. They are in keeping with the school-houses in other parts of the State. 'They are not beautiful outward,' and in some which I entered I found very little in the internal structure and arrangement to approve. The desks, as usual, are where they never ought to be, against the sides of the school-room and against one end, of the same height for all the children, who want desks, whatever be their size and age. The seats are so high that some of the children cannot get their feet to the floor; and in others the height of the desks and seats are disproportionate. While at these desks, (which are often too narrow,) the children are tempted to be looking out at the windows at every passing object, and are liable at times to be incommoded by the too intense rays of the sun, by the air, or cold; their backs are toward their teacher, and not their faces. In getting over their bench to the desks, and then in turning round from them, they annoy one another and distract the school, while the edge of the desk, often hacked, acts alternately upon the breast and back like a kind of saw-fish. In some instances still, the barbarous custom remains, of seating the little children on benches without backs, raised so high that their feet hang dangling."

The following extracts are taken from official documents, published in 1846 and 1847, and fair specimens of the manner in which school-houses are spoken of, in the reports of local committees, from different parts of the State.

"In one district the school-house stands on the highway, with eighty pupils enrolled as in attendance, in a room nineteen and a half feet square, without any outbuildings of any kind.

In another in the same town, the school-house is less than seven feet high, and the narrow slab seats are twenty-one inches high, (four inches higher than ordinary chairs.) The walls, desks, &c., are cut and marked with all sorts of images, some of which would make heathens blush.

In another, the room is fourteen feet square, and six feet five inches high. The walls are very black."

"In this town there is one of the most venerable school servants in the State. The room is small, and less than seven feet high. Slab seats extend around three sides of the room, and are too high for men. The skill of several generations must have been expended in illustrating the walls with lamp smoke and coal images. The crevices of the floor will admit any quantity of cold air. The door sill and part of the house sill have rotted away. The day I visited it, the teacher and pupils were huddled around the stove."

"In one district, the house stands near the travelled road, is low and small, being only seventeen feet by seventeen, and seven feet two inches high, for the accommodation of sixty or seventy pupils. The seats on the outside are from seventeen to eighteen inches. The walls, door, and sides of the house are disfigured with obscene images."

" There are only three good school-houses in the society; only three that have any out-houses. The rest of the school-houses are in a miserable condition. One is thirty-five or forty years old. Most of them have only slab seats, with the legs sticking through, upwards, like hatchel-teeth, and high enough to keep the legs of the occupants swinging. They are as uncomfortable to little children as a pillory. Seats and desks are adorned with every embellishment that the ingenuity of professional whittlers can devise."

"Two of our school-houses, those in the two largest districts, are in a bad condition, old, unpainted and inconvenient. They are built and constructed *inside* on the old Connecticut plan. Only one row of desks, and that fastened to the wall of the school-room, running quite around it; and long forms, without backs to rest on, the scholars sitting with their backs to the centre of the room. The other two are in better condition, though one is constructed on the same plan as above. The out-buildings are in bad condition generally. One school-house has no out-building nor wood-house. One school-house only is painted outside."

"Of the nine school-houses in this society, not one is really what they all ought to be, for the morals, health, and intellectual improvement of the pupils. Four of them are considered tolerably good, having one out-building, the other five are hardly passable. The desks in most or all of them are where they never ought to be, against the sides of the room and against one end, and with few exceptions, all of a height, with poor accommodations for loose clothes, hats, &c.; all located on or near some highway; no play-ground attached to any of them, except the highway."

MAINE.

EXTRACT *from a special "Report of the Secretary of the Board of Education, upon the subject of School-Houses."*

"It is worthy of note, and of most serious consideration, that a majority of the returns speak of ill-constructed school-houses as one of the most prominent 'defects in the practical operation of the law establishing common-schools.' The strength and uniformity of the language made use of, as well as the numerous applications to the members of the board, and their secretary, for information upon this subject, leave no room for doubt as to the existence of a wide-spread evil; an evil, the deleterious influence of which, unless it is reformed, and that speedily, is not to be confined to the present generation, but must be entailed upon posterity. In remarking upon this subject, as long ago as 1832, it was said by the board of censors of the American Institute of Instruction, that 'if we were called upon to name the most prominent defect in the schools of our country; that which contributes most, directly and indirectly, to retard the progress of public education, and which most loudly calls for a prompt and thorough reform, it would be the want of spacious and convenient school-houses.' From every indication, there is reason to believe that the remark is applicable to our school-houses, in their present condition, as it was when made. For the purpose of contributing, in some small degree, towards effecting a reform for which so urgent a necessity exists, and rendering some assistance, in the way of counsel, to those who are about erecting new school-houses, or remodelling old ones, this report is prepared, under the direction of the board. It makes no claim to originality of thought or language; it is, in fact, a mere compilation of the thoughts and language of others who have given the subject a careful investigation, whose opinions are the result of close observation and long experience, and are therefore entitled to our confidence and respect. To save the necessity of giving credit, upon almost every page of this report, for borrowed language, as well as ideas, it may here be remarked, that the principal sources from which the information herewith communicated has been compiled, are, the reports upon the subject of school-houses, by Hon. Horace Mann and Henry Barnard, Esq., and 'The School-master,' by Mr. George B. Emerson; gentlemen to whom, for their efforts in the

cause, a large debt of gratitude is due from the friends of education; a debt which can be discharged in no manner more acceptable to them, than by entering into their labors, and adopting and reducing to practice their very valuable suggestions."

RHODE ISLAND.

EXTRACTS *from "Report on the condition and improvement of the Public Schools of Rhode Island, submitted Nov.* 1, 1845, *by Henry Barnard, Commissioner of Public Schools.*"

"The condition of the school-houses, was, in my circuit through the schools, brought early and constantly under my notice, and to effect an immediate and thorough reform, public attention was early and earnestly called to the subject. The many and great evils to the health, manners, morals, and intellectual habits of children, which grow out of their bad and defective construction and appurtenances, were discussed and exposed, and the advantages of more complete and convenient structures pointed out. In compliance with the request of the Committee on Education, a law authorizing school districts to lay and collect a tax to repair the old, and build new school-houses, was drafted and passed; and in pursuance of a resolution of the General Assembly, a document was prepared embodying the results of my observations and reflections on the general principles of school-architecture, and such plans and descriptions of various structures recently erected, for large and small, city and country districts, and for schools of different grades, as would enable any committee to act understandingly, in framing a plan suitable to the wants of any particular district or school. The same document was afterwards abridged and distributed widely, as one of the '*Educational Tracts*,' over the state. I have secured the building of at least one school-house in each county, which can be pointed to as a model in all the essential features of location, construction, warming, ventilation, seats and desks, and other internal and external arrangements.

During the past two years, more than fifty school-houses have been erected, or so thoroughly repaired, as to be substantially new—and most of them after plans and directions given in the above document, or furnished directly by myself, on application from districts or committees."

"Of these, (three hundred and twelve school-houses visited,) twenty-nine were owned by towns in their corporate capacity; one hundred and forty-seven by proprietors; and one hundred and forty-five by school districts. Of two hundred and eighty school-houses from which full returns were received, including those in Providence, twenty-five were in very good repair; sixty-two were in ordinary repair; and eighty-six were pronounced totally unfit for school purposes; sixty-five were located in the public highway, and one hundred and eighty directly on the line of the road, without any yard, or out-buildings attached; and but twenty-one had a play-ground inclosed. In over two hundred school-rooms, the average height was less than eight feet, without any opening in the ceiling, or other effectual means for ventilation; the seats and desks were calculated for more than two pupils, arranged on two or three sides of the room, and in most instances, where the results of actual measurement was given, the highest seats were over eighteen inches from the floor, and the lowest, except in twenty-five schools, were over fourteen inches for the youngest pupils, and these seats were unprovided with backs. Two hundred and seventy schools were unfurnished with a clock, blackboard, or thermometer, and only five were provided with a scraper and mat for the feet."

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THE RHODE ISLAND INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION.

The Annual Meeting of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction was held at the State House, in the Hall of Representatives, on Thursday evening, January 7th, 1847. The meeting was opened by a brief address from the President, John Kingsbury, Esq., after which Mr. Perry submitted the following Report on behalf of the committee.

The Second Annual Report of the Executive Committee of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction.

The Executive Committee are required by the Constitution to present at the close of the year a report of their doings, and of the condition and prospects of the cause they have labored to promote. Ours is a cheerful duty. Never has the cause of education in our State presented so cheering an aspect as at this time. An interest is awakened and displaying itself in ways too obvious for mistake. All realize and lament the apathy and neglect, which formerly characterized our State in respect to its provision for general education, and most look forward with hope and confidence to the train of measures now in progress to compensate for past remissness. A defective system of general education is allowed to be a waste of time, money and effort, while a good system, judiciously and efficiently administered, is true economy and sound policy.

We are now at an interesting period in our enterprise. Having cast aside some of the weights and obstacles, that formerly hindered our progress, we are now entering upon our work with increased facilities and with corresponding responsibilities. Greater results are expected than

have been before accomplished, and these results can be secured only through their appropriate means. Wisdom, moderation and judicious action are needed to turn the advantages, which have already been gained, to practical account, and to direct the interest awakened into its appropriate channel.

The Rhode Island Institute of Instruction has now fairly enlisted in the cause of popular education. 'Two years' experience has served but to quicken its interest and renew its energies. It has adopted the seal of the State, supported by appropriate emblems,—Religion and Education. Upon the top of its device waves a flag inscribed,—"In God we hope,"—Next below stands the anchor, a firm protection against the battling elements. On one side, the temple of religion shoots her spire towards heaven; on the other, stand the fair proportions of a neat and well shaded school house. The shield, thus inscribed, rests upon an open volume,—the volume of revelation and of nature, open alike to all. Yet *all* cannot read and understand it. Special preparation is required. Here, this society comes in to render aid and assistance. It would lead all into the great high way of intelligence, virtue and peace. It would see such a provision of means as to enable each child, by the exercise of his own power, to comprehend the great lessons of Divine Providence. It would see the moral and intellectual energies of the State duly developed, and the stains of ignorance and passion wiped forever from our broad escutcheon.

With this object in view, and deeply impressed with its importance, the Executive Committee have proceeded in the discharge of their duties. They have held repeated meetings to devise measures and decide upon plans of action. The pecuniary resources of the society, are, it is known, small; each member contributing, on signing the constitution, a trifling sum; but the cause it advocates has raised up for it friends, who have generously contributed to its means of usefulness and influence. By the untiring efforts of the president and the generosity of numerous public spirited citizens a special fund has been raised, and used under the direction of a special Committee, appointed by the Executive Committee, principally for three objects:—1. To circulate educational Tracts and Periodicals; 2. To employ an agent; 3. To sustain Teacher's Institutes. Without this well-timed and well directed aid, comparatively little could have been done by the Institute.

1. In all their efforts, the great aim of the Executive Committee has been to coöperate with the Commissioner of Public Schools and aid him in accomplishing the leading purpose of his agency. At his suggestion and from a full knowledge of the needs of the State, three se-

ries of publications were commenced, and have been completed within the last year. The subscription price was put lower than the first cost to induce a large circulation, and thereby increase the usefulness of the publications. The Commisssioner discharged, without compensation, the duties of editor and conductor. A part of the deficiency of receipts has been supplied from the special fund, and the remaining and much the larger part, by the Commissioner from his own resources.

Special acknowledgements are due Mr. Hartshorn for the important assistance he rendered in discharging the duties of business agent for the Journal. The character of the publications is too well know to require a detailed account from the Executive Committee. The Journal and Extra Journal, comprising 470 pages, form a book of reference of great value and interest. The Educational Tracts, nine in number, and comprising 141 pages, were prepared to meet the immediate wants of the community, though some of them are worthy of lasting preservation, both on account of their subjects and the clear and forcible manner in which they are illustrated. The first five Tracts were printed previous to the first annual meeting of the Institute. The subject of No. 6 is,— "Aids to English Composition." No 7, "Oral Instruction in English Grammar." No. 8, "The coöperation of parents solicited by the teacher of their children." No. 9, "The coöperation of children solicited by their teacher." The Committee have had little opportunity of judging of the usefulness of these publications except by their practical character, the avidity with which they have been sought and read in different parts of the State, and the fact that they have in a limited form and extent been reprinted and circulated in other States. An edition of 2000 copies or more of each series was printed; 1600 of these have been circulated, and the remaining 400 are ready to be distributed as soon as they shall be called for to supply existing wants in the districts.

Another volume of the Journal is needed, which shall contain a detailed account of the condition and means of education in each town, together with lectures and other valuable information upon the general subject. It is thought that a volume might be printed, which would add to the interests of the cause, without incurring so great an expense beyond the income as was occasioned by the publication of the first volume.

2. Mr. William S. Baker, of Warwick, has acted as agent of the Institute for eight months within two years. He has passed his time in lecturing, visiting schools, and in other ways laboring to promote the general object of the Institute. Mr. Baker has lectured in 29 out of the

31 towns and visited a large majority of the districts in them. He has every where been received with kindness and listened to with attention, and it is believed that his efforts, under the joint direction of the Commissioner and of the special Committee have been instrumental in awakening much interest and giving it a practical direction. The clear and vivid expression of truth through the medium of the voice is a means of influence, which may be effectually employed in carrying out the intention of a system of general education.

3. Arrangements were made by the Executive Committee in connection with Mr. Barnard for holding a Teachers' Institute in this city during the second week in the month of November.—Teachers from all parts of the State were invited to be present and participate in the privilege of the occasion without incurring for themselves the expense of board. Upwards of two hundred responded to the call, and indicated by their regular attendance and cheerful attention that they both enjoyed the exercises and were benefited by them.

Meetings of this kind are indispensable to the successful operation of a good system of Public Schools. They afford teachers and such as propose to teach, an opportunity of becoming acquainted with the best modes of instruction and discipline, and tend to elevate all the schools to a standard of uniform excellence. Rhode Island was the first State in the Union to sanction Teachers' Institutes by legal enactment, though she has not been the first to appropriate the means to secure their benefits. The Commissioner is authorized to establish them but not to draw any thing from the general treasury to meet their current expenses. His position is in this respect somewhat peculiar— authorized to do a work without being provided with the *means* to do it. This society in connection with the Commissioner has thus far been responsible for the expenses incurred to sustain these Institutes, but the gentlemen, who have contributed these funds will no longer be willing to take the responsibility, which belongs to the State; and it is to be hoped that the attention of our legislators may forthwith be directed to the importance and necessity of a special appropriation for this object. Massachusetts appropriates $2,500 annually for this object, and a proportionate amount could not be more judiciously and advantageously expended by Rhode Island. It would tend to secure the best use of the annual school appropriation and effectually to convert the whole into intelligence and virtue, possessed by her youth and embryo citizens.

In immediate connection with Teachers' Institutes, the Commissioner

is authorized to establish one thoroughly organized Normal School. This provision of the law and means of forming good teachers has as yet received but little attention. Indeed, there is much vagueness and misapprehension respecting the nature and use of the Normal school contemplated, and some, for these reasons, we suspect, question the expediency of establishing it, believing that the advantages to be derived would not be commensurate with the necessary outlay for its establishment and maintenance. It is desirable that the subject undergo a candid and thorough investigation, and that the truth be made to appear. The idea is preposterous and the undertaking would be quixotic, to make good teachers out of all, desiring to become such, though they might enjoy the privileges of the best Normal Schools and Institutes in the land. No impossibilities are however proposed and no miracles expected to be wrought. Relying upon the simple principle that teachers are, like all men, *capable* of improvement, we propose, by providing the *means*, to take away all excuse for neglect, and thus virtually to give an impulse to their improvement. The position of teachers, and the relation they sustain to the moral and pecuniary interests of the State, justify and require special efforts in their behalf. They are a main spring in our system of Public Schools. On their spirit, aim and power depends, in a great measure, the working of the system. They must be sought out and brought forward by direct and systematic means. How shall this be done? is the question. First and mainly, we reply, by the force of public sentiment. The community must appreciate, demand and pay professoinal merit. The demand will do much to create the supply; so will, also, the supply to create the demand. We must work in both ways,—elevate the teachers and the community, and their influence will be reciprocal. The kind of elevation needed by teachers comes from moral and intellectual power, and tact and skill in their profession. Their training can, doubtless, be best conducted in its early stages in the common schools. There, the object is to develope the character in its true proportions, and prepare our youth to enter on vantage ground into the various walks of life.—But those, who design to teach, cannot there receive the special preparation which they need.

Teachers' Institutes, as they are now conducted, have their object, and a good one it is, and well do they answer it. But they do not cover the whole ground. They are temporary and unsettled in their character. They do not afford an opportunity for a thorough and systematic course of instruction. They give teachers and those who desire to be-

come such a mere "brush." They stir but for the moment the blood, which has become thick by inactivity. We want it chased through the veins, till every fibre is reached, and the whole system invigorated. We want their aims and purposes raised, and their minds impressed with the dignity and importance of their calling. We want them to enjoy the privileges of an institution, where the very atmosphere will brace them for their peculiar and responsible duties; where they will be shown the importance of good manners, correct habits, clear thoughts, and force and accuracy of expression, and where the principles of good government and instruction will be set forth and illustrated by example and precept.

The object aimed at is of unquestionable importance. The best talents of the community should be enlisted in the profession of the teacher, and with them should be associated those accomplishments and attractions which give power and influence over mind and character. Art and skill have here their most appropriate work. The tender and plastic powers of youth are to be developed. New worlds of thought, feeling and desire are to be explored. Guides are wanted. Who shall step forth and lead the way? Not surely the common travelers, who have no special fitness or preparation. We want men of clear foresight and steadiness of purpose, who have themselves traveled the ground under good guides, and marked the ways with careful forethought. How can we secure them? We are not disposed to disparage the agencies now employed, nor the results effected by them. We would keep what good we possess, and get what more we can. We wish to see these agencies continued, and with them, others of a kindred, though somewhat different character, which shall reach in the same direction, but beyond them. We wish to see the weight and disabilities more effectually removed from the professional teacher. Let him have the opportunity to rise. Give him the means, and bid him shake off the stain of ignorance. Make permanent provision for his instruction, and he will not fail to profit by it. Each profession must be cared for and provided for. Left to itself, it will suffer in character and in reputation. The teachers' profession forms no exception. It now shows marks of its former treatment. Its intrinsic importance and just claims to the favorable regards of the community should shield it from neglect. It cannot be neglected. Its wants are imperative; and they must receive attention, or our whole system of education fails in consequence. The wants of the profession, numerous and various as they are, can be permanently

provided for, only by the establishment of an institution, which looks directly and solely to them, as they exist in the character and aims of the experienced and of the inexperienced. This institution should partake of the character of a permanent Teachers' Institute and of a Normal school, and combine the privileges of both. It need not and will not diminish effort in other directions, but will rather stimulate to greater activity. It need not distract attention from old and tried means, but rather add another of the same general character to those already existing. Nothing can be lost; much may and must be gained. The plan is practicable. It has been tried in our midst to a limited extent under the form of Teachers' Institutes. Carried out, it will tend, from its general influence and peculiar privileges, to give character and standing to the schools of the State;—omitted, the schools cannot attain that standard of elevation which the completeness of our system is designed to effect.

Since our last annual meeting, some practical results have appeared of a very gratifying character. A large number of new school-houses have been built, and many old ones repaired. Some of the buildings are worthy of the cause they are designed to promote, being models of neatness, convenience, and architectural taste. We mention two in North Providence, which we have had the pleasure to examine, though we learn there are many of like merit in other parts of the State. One was erected by the First District in Pawtucket, and the other, yet incomplete, by Zachariah Allen, Esq., at Allendale. They are perfect in themselves, though differing widely in their features and general proportions. A view of either will amply repay a visit to those interested in school architecture. We might instance the striking results which have been wrought in Coventry and other agricultural districts and manufacturing villages, but we trust we shall have a more faithful account of these from another source.

The town committees and trustees are generally organized and moving forward agreeably to the provision of the late school act. A more thorough supervision is generally exercised over the schools. The teachers undergo a more critical examination. Visits to the school-rooms by parents and committee-men are less infrequent. A system of general regulations is adopted in many towns, which tends to uniformity and excellence. The multiplicity and heterogeneous mass of text-books is giving place to a proper number of uniform and well selected books.—The number of annual schools has greatly increased, and the compensa-

tion of teachers is more liberal than ever before. Faithful and efficient teachers are better appreciated; while unfaithful and inefficient ones receive less encouragement. Apparatus, maps, and other means of visible illustrations have been provided in a good number of districts. Teachers labor with more faithfulness and assiduity to improve themselves and their pupils, and school committee-men manifest more earnestness and efficiency in the discharge of their duties.

The Executive Committee have, however, been led to believe, from facts which have come to their knowledge, that something more should be done in many of our towns to secure a more active and vigilant supervision and faithful attention to the wants of the schools. In some towns are to be found men of leisure, ability, and public spirit, who are willing to devote the requisite time and effort gratuitously to the schools. But where such men are not found, the schools are apt to languish, unless otherwise specially provided for. We would here suggest two plans, which have been tried to some extent, and favorably regarded. The first is the course pursued this year by the town of Smithfield, where three well-qualified men are authorized to discharge all the duties of school committee-men, and receive a compensation for their services. The other is the plan which was urged at the first annual meeting of the Institute, and adopted in Providence, Cumberland, and Hopkinton, that the general committee of one or more towns employ a suitable individual to carry out more effectually their plans and views. This tends to secure the benefits of skill and experience in the management of the schools; since the same committee will consent, under such circumstances, to perform for a successive course of years, the requisite amount of duty, and will find it for their interest to employ the individual to superintend the schools, who has a full knowledge of their condition and wants. The work is most apt to be neglected, where, on account of its being great, it is divided among many committee-men. This division of responsibility is usually regarded as a virtual release from it. Our chief object here is to use the importance of a proper supervision and attention to the wants of the schools, leaving it for the wisdom of the community to devise the best measures to secure them.

Frequent changes in the situation of teachers should be avoided, as subversive of the highest interests of the community. The former lose in character and influence, and the latter in service.

Further efforts should also be made to bring about a gradation of schools, and to continue the schools during the year or a larger part of

it. The first may be, and occasionally is secured by uniting two or more contiguous districts. The inconvenience of going some distance to school is not to be regarded as so great an evil to a pupil, as not to receive the instruction suited to his wants after he arives there. To secure the latter object, such an intensity of interest should be excited as to loosen the purse-strings of the people. Also, it is believed, that the growing practice of employing female teachers may become more general with advantage to the schools.

The Executive Committee would further urge the importance of two means of general education, which were commended to the attention of the Institute in the first annual report. 1. Every considerable village may secure to itself the benefits of a course of lectures by making the necessary arrangements, and paying the current expenses of the lecturers. 2. It is desirable that a library be established in every district in the State, and used under proper regulations for the benefit of the children and inhabitants thereof.

The Executive Committee have but glanced at the topics which have come up before them for consideration. The amount of good that has already been done for the cause of education in the State only shows the necessity of doing more to secure the full benefits. They are impressed with the importance of the whole subject, and earnestly invite the citizens of the State to continue to coöperate in promoting the prosperity of that cause which underlies all the great interests of the State, and is the foundation and pillar upon which rests the broad fabric of our republican institutions,—THE INTELLIGENCE AND VIRTUE OF THE PEOPLE.

In behalf of the Executive Committee,

AMOS PERRY.

After the reading of the Report of the Executive Committee, remarks and facts were submitted on the present condition of the schools, on school libraries, and the further improvement of education in the State, by Dr. Wayland, Mr. Barnard, Mr. Manchester, of Portsmouth, Dr. Ballou, of Cumberland, Rev. Mr. Vernon, of Kingston, Rev. Mr. Vail, of Westerly, Mr. Whipple, of Coventry, Mr. Baker, of Warwick, Mr. Hunter, of Newport, Mr. Davis, of North Providence, and other gentlemen.

The Report of the Treasurer was read, and referred with the vouchers, to Auditors.

A memorial to the General Assembly favorable to sending a bound

volume of the Journal of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction to every district, was adopted, and Messrs. Ballou, Bosworth and Davis, appointed a committee to present the same.

A resolution directing the Executive Committee to take such steps as they shall think expedient, towards the introduction of town and district libraries, was passed.

The following officers, nominated by the committee appointed for this purpose, were elected for the year ensuing.

John Kingsbury, *President.*
E. R. Potter, *1st Vice President.*
Jesse S. Tourtellot, *2d* " "
C. G. Perry, *3d* " "
Rev. Thomas Shepard, *4th* " "
John J. Kelton, *5th* " "
Nathan Bishop, *Corresponding Secretary.*
J. D. Giddings, *Recording Secretary.*
T. C. Hartshorn, *Treasurer.*

Executive Committee—William Gammell, Joseph T. Sisson, John B. Tallman, L. W. Ballou, Rev. John Boyden, Jr., Amos Perry, Caleb Farnum, Jr., Samuel Green, George C. Wilson, W. S. Baker, Thomas R. Hazard.

The appearance and remarks of the Hon. William Hunter gave much interest to the proceedings of the annual meeting. His allusion to the condition of education in the State, fifty years ago, as contrasted with what he had heard of the condition of the public schools of Providence, and other parts of the State was intensely interesting. He stated that he remembered the time when the town of Providence was refused by the Legislature permission to tax itself for school purposes. Founded as the State was upon the great ideas of civil and religious liberty, the friends of the State must rear a safe structure worthy of the foundations.

The Report of the Executive Committee of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction, presents two important subjects for the consideration and action of the friends of popular improvement in this State—the professional training of teachers by means of a Normal School, and the carrying on the work of education in the community among the old, as well as the young, with those who are still in the schools, and those who have passed beyond its walls, on subjects treated of in text-books, and on subjects which are beyond their scope, by means of libraries of well selected books. To both of these instrumentalities we have repeatedly, and in various ways, called the attention of the Legislature and of the

people, and we are rejoiced to have our efforts seconded by the influence of the Institute.

We propose to devote the remaining pages of this number of the Journal to the subjects of Libraries and a Normal school.

LIBRARIES.

In place of any thoughts of our own on the value of books and public libraries—of a taste for reading, and of opportunities for gratifying it by easy access to a collection of good books, we will adduce the testimony of men, whose minds have been enriched and strengthened by access to libraries, and whose highest and purest pleasures have been derived from this source.

"A child doomed," says Dr. Channing in his invaluable work on Self-culture, "to utter loneliness, growing up without sight or sound of human beings, would not put forth equal power with many brutes; and a man never brought into contact with minds superior to his own, will probably run one and the same dull round of thought and action to the end of life. It is chiefly through books that we enjoy intercourse with superior minds, and these invaluable means of communication are in the reach of all. In the best books great men talk to us, give us their most precious thoughts, and pour their souls into ours. God be thanked for books. They are the voices of the distant and the dead, and make us heirs of the spiritual life of past ages. Books are the true levellers. They give to all who will faithfully use them, the society, the spiritual presence of the best and greatest of our race. No matter how poor I am. No matter though the prosperous of my own time will not enter my obscure dwelling. If the Sacred Writers will enter and take up their abode under my roof, if Milton will cross my threshold to sing to me of Paradise, and Shakspeare to open to me the worlds of imagination and the workings of the human heart, and Franklin to enrich me with his practical wisdom, I shall not pine for want of intellectual companionship, and I may become a cultivated man though excluded from what is called the best society in the place where I live.

"Nothing can supply the place of books. They are cheering or soothing companions in solitude, illness, affliction. The wealth of both continents would be no equivalent for the good they impart. Let every man, if possible, gather some good books under his roof, and obtain access for himself and family to some social libary. Almost any luxury should be sacrificed to this. One of the very interesting features of our times, is the multiplication of books, and their distribution through all conditions of society. At a small expense a man may now possess himself of the most precious treasures of English literature. Books once confined to a few by their costliness, are now accessible to the multitude: and in this way a change of habits is going on in society, highly favorable to the culture of the people. Instead of depending on casual rumor, and loose conversation, for most of their knowledge and objects of thought; instead of forming their judgments in crowds, and receiving their chief excitement from the voice of neighbors, men are now learning to study and reflect alone, to follow out subjects continuously, to determine for

themselves what shall engage their minds, and to call to their aid the knowledge, original views, and reasonings of men of all countries and ages; and the results must be, a deliberateness and independence of judgment, and a thoroughness and extent of information, unknown in former times. The diffusion of these silent teachers, books, through the whole community, is to work greater effects than artillery, machinery, and legislation. Its peaceful agency is to supersede stormy revolutions."

"Of all amusements that can possibly be imagined," says Sir John Herschel, the distinguished astronomer, "for a hard-working man after his toil, or in its intervals, there is nothing like reading an interesting newspaper or book. It calls for no bodily exertion, of which he has already had enough, or perhaps too much It relieves his home of its dullness and sameness. It transports him into a livelier and gayer, and more diversified and interesting scene; and while he enjoys himself there, he may forget the evil of the present moment fully as much as if he were ever so drunk,—with the great advantage of finding himself next day with the money in his pocket, or at least laid out in real necessaries and comforts for himself and family,—and without a headache. Nay, it accompanies him to his next day's work; and if what he he has been reading be any thing above the idlest and lightest, gives him something to think of, besides the mere mechanical drugery of his every-day occupation,—something he can enjoy while absent, and look forward to with pleasure. If I were to pray for a taste which should stand me in stead, under every variety of circumstances, and be a source of happiness and cheerfulness to me through life, and a shield against its ills, however things might go amiss, and the world frown upon me, it would be a taste for reading."

To the same purport are the remarks of Macauley, whose contributions to the Edinburgh Review constitute a valuable part of modern English literature in the department of historical and belles letters criticism.

"There is, I may well say, no wealth, there is no power, there is no rank, which I would accept, if in exchange I were to be deprived of my books, of the privilege of conversing with the greatest minds of all past ages, of searching after the truth, of contemplating the beautiful, of living with the distant, the unreal, the past, and the future. Knowing, as I do, what it is to enjoy these pleasures myself, I do not grudge them to the laboring men, who, by their honorable, independent, and gallant efforts, have advanced themselves within their reach; and owing all that I owe to the soothing influences of literature, I should be ashamed of myself, if I grudged the same advantages to them."

With what fervid eloquence does one of our American scholars and statesmen,—the Hon. Rufus Choate, in his speech on the disposition of the Smithsonian Donation, plead for the establishment of a Library, worthy of the nation and of the age.

"No body can doubt that such a library comes within the terms and spirit of the trust. That directs us 'to increase and diffuse knowledge among men.' And does not the judgment of all the wise; does not the

experience of all enlightened states; does not the whole history of civilization concur to declare that a various and ample library is one of the surest, most constant, most permanent, and most economical instrumentalities to increase, and diffuse knowledge? There it would be,—durable as liberty, durable as the union; a vast storehouse, a vast treasury, of all the facts which make up the history of man and of nature, so far as that history has been written; of all the truths which the inquiries and experiences of all the races and ages have found out; of all the opinions that have been promulgated; of all the emotions, images, sentiments, examples, of all the richest and most instructive literatures; the whole past speaking to the present and the future; a silent, yet wise and eloquent teacher; dead yet speaking—not dead! for Milton has told us that a 'good book is not absolutely a dead thing—the precious life-blood rather of a master spirit; a seasoned life of man embalmed and treasured up on purpose to a life beyond life.' Is not that an admirable instrumentality to increase and diffuse knowledge among men? It would place within the reach of our minds, of our thinkers, and investigators, and scholars, all, or the chief, intellectual and literary materials, and food and instruments, now within the reach of the cultivated foreign mind, and the effect would be to 'increase the amount of individual acquisition, and multiply the number of the learned. It would raise the standard of our scholarship, improve our style of investigation, and communicate an impulse to our educated and to the general mind. * * * * * *

By such a library as you can collect here, something will be done, much will be done, to help every college, every school, every studious man, every writer and thinker in the country, to just what is wanted most. Inquirers after truth may come here and search for it. It will do them no harm at all to pass a few studious weeks among these scenes. Having pushed their investigations as far as they may at home, and ascertained just what, and how much more, of helps they require, let them come hither and find it. Let them replenish themselves, and then go back and make distribution among their pupils; ay, through the thousand channels, and by the thousand voices of the press, let them make distribution among the people! Let it be so, that—

> "Hither as to their fountains other stars
> Repairing, in their golden urns draw light."

* * * Think of the large absolute numbers of those who, in the succession of years, will come and partake directly of these stores of truth and knowledge! Think of the numbers without number who, through them, who, by them indirectly, will partake of the same stores! Studious men will come to learn to speak and write to and for the growing millions of a generally educated community. They will learn that they may communicate. They cannot hoard if they would, and they would not if they could. They take in trust to distribute; and every motive of ambition, of interest, of duty will compel them to distribute. They buy in gross, to sell by retail. The lights which they kindle here will not be set under a bushel, but will burn on a thousand hills. No, sir; a rich and public library is no anti-republican monopoly. Who was the old Egyptian king that inscribed on his library the words, the dispensary of the soul? You might quite as well inscribe on it, armory, and light, and fountain of liberty!"

The manifold advantages and pleasures flowing directly and forever from good books, have led to their being gathered into private and public libraries* in all past time, but it is only within a very recent period, and in our own country, and in but a limited portion of our own country that libraries of sound and useful literature have been placed within reach of the people at large, and without charge. "New York," remarks one of her ablest men, Henry S. Randall, Esq of Cortland village, in his Report on District School Libraries, in 1844, "has the proud honor of being the first government in the world, which has established a free library system adequate to the wants of her whole population. It extends its benefits equally to all conditions, and in all local situations.

* The Library of Alexandria contained 700,000 volumes, and that of Pergamus 200,000 volumes. The Hebrews had libraries attached to their schools or academies, and some of their writers speak of "the multitude of books," and of "the making of books," there being "no end" to it in that early day. No authentic account, of the size of the public libraries in Athens, Rome and Constantinople, have come down to us. The following list embraces most of the Libraries in Europe, which contained over 100,000 volumes, in 1836—42.

Engravings, &c. not generally included—nor pamphlets, unless in vols.—nor duplicates, (except in Munich.)

Heidelberg, (University)	145,000	volumes,	2,000	manuscripts.
Wolfenbüttel, (Ducal)	190,000	"	4,500	"
Grätz, (University)	100,000	"		
Prague, (Imperial)	150,000	"	3,500	
Raudnitz, (Prince Lobkowitz)	100,000	"	1,680	"
Vienna, (Imperial)	300,000	"	16,000	"
" (University)	102,000	"		
Munich, (Royal)	500,000	"	8,000	"
Bruxelles, (City)	140,000	"	10,000	"
Louvain, (University)	120,000	"	246	"
Copenhagen, (Royal)	400,000	"	15,000	"
Madrid, (Royal)	130,000	"		
Cambridge, (University)	100,000	"	2,000	"
Edinburgh, (Advocates)	150,000	"	6,000	"
British Museum	400,000	"	30,000	"
Oxford, (Bodleian)	250 000	"	25,000	"
Göttingen, (University)	200,000	"	2,000	"
Bologna, (Institute)	150,000	"	400	"
Brescia, (City)	280,000	"		
Florence, (Magliabechiana)	150,000	"	12,000	"
Milan, (Brena)	200,000	"	1,000	"
" (Ambrosiana)	100,000	"		
Naples, (Royal)	165,000	"	4,000	"
Parma, (Ducal)	100,000	"	4,000	"
Rome, (Casanata)	120,000	"	4,500	"
" (Vatican)	500,000	"	50,000	"
Berlin, (Royal)	350,000	"	10,000	"
Breslau, (University)	150,000	"	2,000	"
St. Petersburg, (Imperial)	414,000	"	16,000	"
" (Hermitage)	100,000	"		
Dresden, (Royal)	260,000	"	2,700	"
Stuttgard, (Royal)	174,000	"	1,800	"
The Hague,	100,000	"		
Paris, (King's Library)	700,000	"	80,000	"
" (St. Geneviève)	200,000	"	6,000	"
" (Mazarine)	100,000	"	3,437	"

It not only gives profitable employment to the man of leisure, but it passes the threshold of the laborer, offering him amusement and instruction after his daily toil is over, without increasing his fatigues or subtracting from his earnings. It is an interesting reflection that there is no portion of our territory so wild or remote, where man has penetrated, that the library has not peopled the wilderness around him, with the good and wise of this and other ages, who address to him their silent monitions, cultivating and strengthening within him, even amidst his rude pursuits, the principles of humanity and civilization. This philanthropic and admirably conceived measure may be justly regarded as, next to the institution of common schools, the most important in that series of causes, which will give its distinctive character to our civilization as a people."

A brief notice of the history of the district library system cannot be otherwise than interesting to every reader.

Governor DeWit Clinton, in his message at the opening of the session of the Legislature in 1827, after an eloquent advocacy of common schools, and other institutions of learning which "give to society men of improved and enlarged minds" and constituted "the great bulwark of republican government," remarks, that "small and suitable collections of books and maps attached to our common schools," was worthy of the attention of the Legislature.

In his annual Report as Superintendent of Common Schools for 1830, Mr. Flagg thus recommends the publication and distribution of suitable books among the school districts.

"A society has been established in England, for the purpose of imparting useful information to all classes of the community, particularly to such as are unable to avail themselves of experienced teachers. To effect this object, treatises on the various sciences, and books of practical utility have been published at such moderate prices, as to bring them within the reach of all classes. A small sum applied to the publication and distribution among the several school districts, of similar works, would have the most favorable influence."

The District Library system, as it was finally introduced into New York owes its origin and rapid extension to the early and unwearied efforts, and the open-handed liberality of the late James Wadsworth,*

* *Extract from a Letter of the Hon. G. W. Patterson, dated Westfield, Chautauque Co. N. Y., May* 6, 1842.

"In regard to the origin of the School District Library System of this State, I will say to you, that the whole credit belongs to Hon. James Wadsworth, of Geneseo, who first suggested the plan to certain members of the Legislature, in 1835, and through his

Esq., of Geneseo. By his suggestion and efforts, aided by Mr Fuller, of Livingston county, and other members of the Legislature, the republication and distribution of Hall's "*Lectures on School Keeping*," among the several school districts, was effected in 1831. These lectures were widely read by teachers and parents, and led to the very natural idea of supplying all the children, as well as teachers and parents, of districts with other books suited to their capacity and wants. To accomplish this great object, Mr. Wadsworth availed himself of his correspondence with gentlemen who were situated to act efficiently on the public mind and the Legislature, as the following extracts from his letters will show.

"*Geneseo*, 23*d July*, 1833.

"I wish some of you gentlemen who have leisure would write a series of short essays on the Common School Act. A historical sketch of the rise and progress of the common schools of New England, in connection with the great chapter on the civilization of man, would be a most useful work. We see what New England is with her common schools, very imperfect as they most certainly are—what would her citizens have been without their schools? Probably something like the peasents of Norway. This "School Act," as it is usually called, ought to contain a provision authorizing a majority of the voters to raise by a tax on the property of each district fifteen or twenty dollars as a commencement of, and five or ten dollars yearly as a perennial spring, to purchase and sustain *a school library*. How are your youth to acquire knowledge without books? They now do not read books when young, and have no distinct ideas when in advanced life, and yet you call on them to decide on treaties and constitutional questions. Some of these embryo libraries, by the donation of the benevolent, would become highly respectable.

"To Charles King, Esq."

urgent solicitation, a law was passed in that year, authorizing the several school districts in the State, to raise the sum of twenty dollars, by tax, the first year, and ten dollars each succeeding year, for the purchase of a District Library. A few districts availed themselves of the benefit of the law, but a large portion kept their eyes and purses closed against the provisions of that act. In 1838, when the Legislature was about to appropriate the income of the United States Deposite Fund, another effort was made by the same distinguished individual, to induce the members to make suitable provisions for District Libraries. In this he was also successful, and the sum of fifty-five thousand dollars, annually, for three years, was appropriated for District Libraries, with a provision requiring the towns and cities in the State, to raise an equal sum for the same purpose; and by the act of 1839, the appropriations were extended to five, in place of three years, and at the expiration of that time it will be for the districts to determine whether that portion of the public money shall be used for the purchase of books, or for the payment of teachers' wages.

Under the law of 1838, nearly all the districts in the State have procured Libraries, and at the expiration of five years from the establishment of the Library system, the boys of fifteen will have read more books than their fathers had at forty or fifty.

In regard to the part I took on the subject of Libraries, I have only to say it was a very humble one. The act of 1838 was violently opposed, and it required great efforts on the part of the friends of the bill, to effect its passage. In this effort I only endeavored to do my duty, and my whole duty, and I never supposed that any thing I said or did, would excite sufficient interest to make any portion worth preserving.

The credit of all that has been done, belongs to the praise-worthy efforts of Mr. Wadsworth."

To Henry Barnard, Esq.

"*Geneseo, Aug. 20th*, 1833.

"It is clear you can not make competent citizens of your 500,000 youth without knowledge. And it is equally clear that knowledge can not be obtained without books. It appears to me to be an object to introduce a clause in the 'School Act,' authorizing, not requiring, a majority of the inhabitants of every school district to raise by tax, say fifteen or twenty dollars as a commencement of a district school library, and five or ten dollars yearly to sustain it:—as these sums are so moderate that they would not alarm the most economical, and would not be felt, or scarcely perceived. These district school libraries, to be purchased by the trustees, would be a noble beginning towards a more general diffusion of knowledge. It will not be ten years before a weekly paper, devoted to the application of science and the arts to the useful purposes of life, will be sent to every school in the State. I have no doubt there are hundreds of individuals in this State who would cheerfully contribute towards this object, if its importance was brought home to their minds.

"B. F. Butler, Esq."

"*Geneseo, 31st, August*, 1833.

"Dear Sir: I send you a copy of a letter which I have recently addressed to Mr. Butler, and will thank you to lay it before Governor Marcy. I beg leave respectfully to invite the Governor's attention to the suggestions in my letter in relation to the district school libraries. I invite his attention at this time to the subject, because he will have an opportunity to converse with a great number of gentlemen on his way to Albany, and I am greatly deceived if every individual does not concur in the fitness and expediency of commencing economically little district school libraries.

"Gen. Levi Hubbell."

"*Geneseo, Sept. 20th*, 1833.

Dear Sir: I am favored with your letter of the 16th inst. I send you a copy of my letter to Mr. Butler, and also one to Mr. Hubbell. My subsequent reflection, and the opinion of several intelligent gentlemen, go to confirm me in my opinion in favor of district school libraries. I much hope that Governor Marcy will recommend them in his Message. Our school districts are moral entities. They are little societies. They are little republics. They are little nurseries of men and women, and our legislation ought to treat and regard them as such.

"E. C. Delevan, Esq.

"*Geneseo, 25th August*, 1834.

"Among the few thoughts that have passed my mind, which I think worth repeating, is the suggestion which I took the liberty of making to his Excellency the Governor, before he delivered his *last winter's message*. I believe you read my letter. I refer to a juvenile library in each school district in this State. I proposed a clause authorizing the inhabitants of each school district to raise twenty dollars by tax, and five dollars yearly afterwards, for a school library to be selected by the trustees. This simple provision, unimportant in a single case, but full of importance and utility in the aggregate, the Governor did not recommend, and I do not know that it was called up to the attention of the Legislature.

"Jesse Buel, Esq."

General Dix in his Annual Report as Superintendent, in 1834, recommends the establishment of Libraries as follows :

" If the inhabitants of school districts were authorized to lay a tax upon their property for the purpose of purchasing libraries for the use of the district, such a power might, with proper restrictions, become a most efficient instrument in diffusing useful knowledge, and in elevating the intellectual character of the people. A vast amount of useful information might in this manner be collected, where it would be easily accessible, and its influence could hardly fail to be in the highest degree salutary, by furnishing the means of improvement to those who have finished their common school education, as well as to those who have not. The demand for books would ensure extensive editions of works containing matter judiciously selected, at prices which competition would soon reduce to the lowest rate at which they could be furnished. By making the imposition of the tax wholly discretionary with the inhabitants of each district, and leaving the selection of the works under their entire control, the danger of rendering such a provision subservient to the propagation of particular doctrines or opinions would be effectually guarded against by their watchfulness and intelligence."

On the 13th of April, 1835, the foundations of the District School Library were laid by an act authorizing the taxable inhabitants of the several school districts to impose a tax not exceeding twenty dollars for the first year, and ten dollars for each succeeding year, 'for the purchase of a district library,' consisting of such books as they shall in their district meeting direct.

Unwearied efforts were made to induce the inhabitants of school districts, to raise the sum necessary to purchase a suitable number of books to constitute a library. Gen. Wadsworth offered to pay one-fourth of the twenty dollars in all the districts in Avon and Geneseo. The proposition was received with cold indifference. Twenty dollars were offered to the first five districts in Henrietta, which should act under the law, but the offer was not accepted for several years. The Rev. Mr. Page, was employed to visit and give lectures on the subject in all the towns of Livingston county, but with little apparent success.

In 1838, Governor Marcy, in reference to the disposition of the United States Deposit Fund, recommended in his message, that a portion of its avails should be appropriated to each district, which should raise by taxation an equal amount, for the establishment of a district library.

" Elementary instruction is only the first stage in the progress of education, and but little is accomplished, if there be no advance beyond it. To make ample provision, for conducting all the children in the state through this stage, should undoubtedly continue to be, as it hitherto has been, the first and main object of the legislature; yet, all that public sentiment demands, and the public good requires, will not be achieved until needful facilities are furnished, to a career of self-instruction. District libraries are well calculated to exert a beneficial influence, in this respect.

It is to be regretted, that the opportunity offered to the school districts, for establishing them has not been embraced with a zeal commensurate to their importance. Few of the districts, compared with the whole number in the state, have manifested a willingness to levy the small sum authorized by law, for the purpose of establishing them. In view of their unquestionable usefulness, I would respectfully recommend, that some further measures be adopted, for introducing them more generally into the districts.

"The law now authorizes the inhabitants of each district, at their option, to raise, the first year, $20, for establishing a library, and $10 in each subsequent year, for enlarging it. Two modes present themselves for advancing this laudable object. One is to make the assessment of the tax compulsory; and the other, to devote a small amount of the fund now at your disposal, to each district, which shall raise by taxation an equal amount, for the establishment of a district library.

"I recommend to your favorable consideration, the latter mode, under a belief, that it would meet with more general approbation than a compulsory assessment, and enlist an interest in behalf of those establishments, that it will not only insure the ultimate introduction of them into the several school districts, but increase their usefulness."

This portion of the message was referred to the Committee on Colleges and Common Schools, of which on the part of the House, the Hon. D. D. Barnard was chairman. In the report from his pen, the education and employment of competent teachers, as the first great feature of any system of public instruction, and then the establishment of libraries of well selected books in each district, were discussed in a masterly manner.

"We propose to make the establishment of district libraries, heretofore attempted in this State by a law of 1835, imperative and certain, as prayed for by various petitions before us. The law, as it now stands, *authorizes* each district to tax itself for this object—$20 the first year and $10 every year afterwards.

We propose that the same sums shall still be realized for these objects, but that the state shall furnish half; while it shall be the duty of the districts, without choice, to tax their own property for the remainder.

The law as it now stands has been nearly a nullity. We can hear of but few, exceedingly few districts, who have availed themselves of its provisions. Some solitary libraries, however, have been established after great efforts and sacrifices on the part of individuals; and from these we have the most satisfactory testimony that the benefits flowing from them have exceeded the highest expectations of the most sanguine advocates of the plan.

To secure the benefits of these libraries to all, we are entirely satisfied that it is indispensable to make the levying of the tax on the districts compulsory; but while the State commands in this matter, as it ought to, we think it should also show a becoming liberality; and this it will do by appropriating more than $100,000 the first year to the single object.

The committee would not disguise that they regard the establishment of these libraries as a thing of the very last consequence; and if refused by the Legislature, they are free to confess that they shall look to all sub-

stantial improvement in the common school system, as something rather to be despaired of than to be expected or hoped for.

With these libraries in possession, it is calculated, on proper and sufficient data, that below seven or eight millions of volumes of books will at once be brought into use and perusal in this State, where now scarcely a book is read; and that seven or eight hundred thousand persons, male and female, young and old, will become attentive and instructed readers, of whom scarcely one is now entitled to the name of reader. Who can undertake to compute the sum of benefits arising from such a condition of things?—the intellectual tastes and habits that may be formed,—the new sympathies springing up between parent and child,—the desertion of old haunts of dissipation and old habits of vice,—the new and swarming births of thought and fancy that must occur,—the occasional discoveries which genius may make of itself and its wonderful powers and impulses,—the passions that shall be calmed,—the differences that shall be healed,—the broils that shall be quieted and allayed,—the families, and neighborhoods, and country that shall be blessed,—who can contemplate all this, and more that might be thought of and not tremble, as a man and a patriot, with the apprehension lest the country should lose, or fail, through any cause, to realize benefits so immense and so indispensable?

It will be seen that the committee place great reliance on the establishment of district libraries, in their influence on both parents and children, as a principal means of leading to the employment of competent teachers."

With several modifications, the bill became the glorious Library law of 1838, by which $53,000 a year, for three years, were appropriated from the public treasury, and the same amount raised by direct tax, for the purchase of books in the several districts of the state. This bill was saved at a critical period, by the exertions of Mr. Patterson, who was then speaker of the House. In 1839, the operation of the law was extended to five instead of three years. From a late Report of the Superintendent of Common Schools, it appears that at least 1.500.000. volumes are now owned by the School Districts of New York.

Prior to the origination of the school district libraries, or even of the system of Sunday School Libraries, there existed in a remote town of Connecticut, a Library, which so far as we know, may be regarded as the pioneer of truly popular libraries. Its history will be found in the following extract from the Connecticut Common School Journal, Vol. II. p. 67.

"The schools of Salisbury have never fallen so low as in some parts of the State, and their schools have turned out some of the best specimens of common school men,—hard-working, enterprizing business men, which the State and the country, for they are found all over the country, can boast. Much of this can be, and must in justice, be attributed to the Bingham Library for Youth. The Library was established in 1803, and owes its origin to a generous donation of one hundred and fifty volumes to the town of Salisbury, by Caleb Bingham, then of Boston, but a native of Salisbury, and the author of several popular school books.

The following letter to his brother, which was copied from the records of the Library, accompanied the books, and explains the object and views of the donor.

Boston, Jan'y 4th, 1803.

Dear Brother,—If the people of Salisbury, from my present conduct, should tax me with acting a *childish* part, I feel willing to bear the imputation, for I can readily conceive of the justness of such a remark. Indeed, I have been so long conversant with children, that it is possible that my feelings towards them may be somewhat different from those of mankind in general.

We all agree that the education of youth is an object of the highest consequence; but all are apt to be too sparing of the means for the attainment of that object. Could the pursuit of useful knowledge be substituted for the common amusement of children, there is no doubt but there would be a greater number of valuable members of society in advanced age.

I well remember, when I was a boy, how ardently I longed for the opportunity of reading, but had no access to a library. It is more than probable that there are at the present time, in my native town, many children who possess the same desire, and who are in a like unhappy predicament. This desire, I think I have it in my power, in a small degree, to gratify. And however whimsical the project may appear to those who have not considered the subject, I cannot deny myself the pleasure of making the attempt. For that purpose, I have selected from my shelves 150 volumes for the commencement of a Library for the sole use of the children of the town of Salisbury, from nine to sixteen years of age, who are sufficiently capable of reading, and whose moral characters are such as to entitle them to the confidence of the Trustees of the Library.

To the small beginning, it is presumed the liberality of your fellow townsmen will induce them to make such additions from time to time, as that it will at length become respectable.

It is to be hoped that the following gentlemen will not consider it too burthensome to take upon themselves the management of the Library, to whose entire direction, I beg leave to submit it, with the right of filling any vacancies which may happen in their Board; viz. Rev. Joseph W. Crossman, Samuel Lee, Esq., Luther Holley, Asa Hutchinson, Peter Farnam, Phinehas Chapin, Timothy Chittenden, jr., Elisha Sterling, Lot Norton, jr., Binajah Bingham. After all, should it so happen that the books should be rejected, on the proposed conditions, or should there be any falling out, (which God forbid,) so that the object in view is like to be defeated, you are hereby authorized to take the books into your possession, and retain them till you further hear from

Your affectionate brother,

Caleb Bingham.

The town gladly accepted this donation, and has from time to time appropriated sums of money, one hundred, fifty, twenty dollars, to enlarge and perpetuate the usefulness of Mr. Bingham's object. Indeed, we were told that the town always acquiesced, without a dissenting voice in the applications of the Trustees of this Library. Thus was established, so far as we are informed, the first Youth's Library on this or the other side of the Atlantic. It dates back far beyond the establishment of Sunday School Libraries, and is essentially different from the old social or union libraries, which once abounded more than now, in this State. But in all probability, this library owes its origin to the benefits which Mr. Bingham had derived from a town library in Salisbury, that is still in existence, though in a much neglected condition. It was here that Mr. Bingham probably gratified his early taste for reading, to which and the Common Schools, we believe he owed his success in life. He returned, a hundred, yea, a thousand fold, the good he had derived from the town library, by founding the youth's library. The books which he gave have been literally worn out, but their places have been from time to time supplied, and instead of one hundred and fifty volumes, the youth of Salisbury have access to near five hundred volumes. On the days when the books are drawn, there is usually a representative present from a majori-

ty of all the families in town, and a highly interesting sight is presented in the animated, eager, inquiring group.

Long may this Library remain, an enduring monument of well timed liberality—and though the books which were originally given have disappeared, still, the name of Bingham will not perish, but will live forever in the gratitude and usefulness of the hundreds and thousands of useful men and women who have through his instrumentality tasted the divine pleasures of knowledge, and are now engaged in honorable and useful stations in every part of our common country."

But the example of Caleb Bingham does not seem to have been very contagious in Connecticut—among individuals—or that of the State of New York, with the Legislature. In 1839, school districts were authorized to establish libraries, and between 1839 and 1842, about twenty libraries were established by individual subscription.

Massachusetts was the first State to follow in the footsteps of New York, by offering a bounty of fifteen dollars to every district, however small, which would raise as much more for the purchase of a District School Library; and every district, having twice sixty children between the ages of 4 and 16 years, which shall raise twice thirty dollars for the same object, is entitled to draw twice fifteen dollars from the State—and so on with any district containing three, or four, or any higher number of times sixty, has the same proportional claim upon the State. The State appropriation in favor of the district is made but once.

Provision is made in the school system of Rhode Island for the establishment of Town and District School Libraries, and of Library Associations, as follows:

Section VII. of the "*Act relating to Public Schools*," provides—

"Any town may establish and maintain a public school library for the use of the inhabitants generally of the town, and such library may be kept together at some convenient place, or be distributed into several parts, and transferred from time to time for the convenience of different districts or neighborhoods, under such rules and regulations as the town may adopt."

By Section XIII. of the same act, every school district is empowered,

"To establish and maintain a school library."

In addition to these provisions, for Town and District Libraries, the following Act was passed at the late June Session:

AN ACT to provide for the voluntary incorporation of Library, Academy, and School Associations:—

Whereas, by the 24th and 25th sections of an act to revise and amend the several acts relating to Public Schools, passed at January session,

A. D. 1839, provision was made for the voluntary incorporation of School and Library Associations, which provisions were inadvertently omitted in the revision of said act in June, A. D. 1845: Therefore,

Be it enacted by the General Assembly as follows:

SECTION I. Whenever any persons to the number of three or more have associated, or shall hereafter associate together for the purpose of procuring and maintaining a Library, or procuring and supporting an Academy or School-house, they shall, upon complying with the terms of this act, become a body corporate for such purpose by such name as they may designate, and subject to such regulations, conditions, and constitution as they may have adopted. And they may hold, control, and convey real and personal estate to an amount not exceeding five thousand dollars, exclusive of their building and the lot on which it may stand, and of their books, maps, pictures, and library furniture.

SEC. II. In case of any association of any number of members heretofore formed for the purpose of maintaining a Library and not incorporated, any three of the members may call a meeting and appoint a time and place therefor, giving to all the known members resident in this State, five days notice thereof, to be served as an original summons is required to be served by law, by some sheriff, deputy sheriff, constable, or by some disinterested person, who shall make oath thereto; and at such meeting so held, a majority of the persons present entitled to vote, may organize said association as a corporation under this act.

SEC. III. The Library corporations formed under this act shall have the power to make assessments on shares, and regulate by by-laws the manner of selling them on failure of payment; and all transfers of the shares shall be recorded in the books of the corporation.

SEC. IV. All corporations organized under this act may elect such officers and for such time as they deem proper, may regulate by by-laws the manner of calling annual or other meetings, may require their officers to give bonds, determine the manner of voting and how many shall constitute a quorum, and generally make all necessary by-laws not inconsistent with law or their constitution, and may prescribe suitable penalties for the violation of them, which, if in money, shall not exceed twenty dollars, and may be collected by action of debt in the name of the corporation. All officers shall continue in office until their successors are appointed, and vacancies may be filled at any meeting or in such manner as the corporation may direct. If no mode is provided of calling annual or other meetings, the Clerk or Secretary shall call a meeting on the request of any three members, by posting up a notice thereof for five days in some public place upon the Library building, Academy, or School-house. And a majority of votes either in person or by proxy shall constitute a quorum, unless otherwise provided by the corporation.

SEC. V. To entitle any association to the benefit of this act, the constitution or articles of association, and all alterations thereof, shall be recorded in the books of Land Evidence of the town where the Library, Academy, or School-house is situated. Any such corporation shall not be dissolved by any reduction of the number of its members.

Passed June Session, 1847. HENRY BOWEN, *Secretary.*

The following Specimen of a *Constitution of a Library Association*, was drawn up by Hon. E. R. Potter, the author of the foregoing act.

We, the subscribers, agree to associate and incorporate ourselves for the purpose of maintaining a public library by the name of the ——— under the provisions of "An act to provide for the voluntary incorporation of Library, Academy and School Associations," passed at the June session of the General Assembly, A. D. 1847, and to be governed by the following constitution.

ART. 1. This Association shall be called ———

2. The officers of the Association shall be a President, Vice President, Secretary, Treasurer and Librarian, who shall constitute a board of directors for the management of the business of the Association, according to such rules as the Association may from time to time adopt. A majority of the persons elected directors shall be a quorum, and they shall meet from time to time whenever notified by the President. Either of the two last named offices may be held by either of the three first named officers.

3. The annual meeting shall be held on ——— and all officers shall be elected by ballot if demanded by any —— members. [The Treasurer and Librarian shall give bonds to the corporation in the sum of —— with security to be approved by the President, for the faithful discharge of the duties of their offices.]

4. Any member for disorderly or immoral conduct may be expelled, and any officer for misconduct may be removed at any regularly notified meeting of the Society.

5. The directors may make all such regulations as they may deem proper for the government of the library, and prescribe fines for non compliance, and may in case of misuse of books prohibit any person from using the library until satisfaction is made.

6. The library shall be held by the association not in shares for the benefit of shareholders, but in trust for the public benefit, to be open to all who shall comply with such reasonable rules as shall from time to time be made by the association or directors. And for the purpose of continuing the existence of the corporation, the association shall from time to time elect as members such persons as they shall think most likely to co-operate zealously in promoting its objects. No member shall be admitted unless proposed at a previous meeting.

[NOTE TO § 6. This section will answer for all cases where the library is established by donations and is intended to be for the benefit of the whole public. In this case the corporation might be named "Trustees of the ——— Library."

But if the Library is intended to be owned in shares and to be for the benefit of shareholders only, this section should be altered accordingly. They will then have power to assess the shares and to sell them for non-payment of the assessments. In this case the shareholders will be the members, and compose the corporation. The law provides how the shares shall be transferred.]

7. This constitution may be amended at any annual meeting, provided notice of the intended amendment has been given at some previous meeting. The Secretary shall cause this constitution and all alterations thereof to be recorded in the Records of Land Evidence of the town of ——— as the law requires.

Wherever it is intended to establish a *permanent* library, it will always be most prudent to be incorporated as above. If a library is owned by several persons unincorporated, it will be liable to division, and each one's interest in the books will be liable to attachment. In a corporation, the share only could be attached, and where the corporation holds the library merely as trustees, (as above provided in § 6,) there would be no attachable interest whatever.

The following Catalogue has been made out to assist committees in the selection of libraries to cost from fifty to fifteen hundred dollars.

A specimen of most of the books can be examined by calling at the office of the Commissioner of Public Schools, who will give all necessary information as to the price, mode of procuring the same, &c. &c.

Dictionaries, Books of Reference, &c.

	Vols.
Penny Cyclopedia,	27
Encyclopedia Americana,	14
Webster's Dictionary,	1
Worcester's Dictionary,	1
Crabb's Synonymes,	1
Liddell & Scott's Greek Lexicon; or Pickering's,	1
Leaverett's Latin Lexicon,	1
Anthon's Greek and Roman Antiquities,	1
Fisk's Manual of Classical Literature,	1
Anthon's Classical Dictionary,	1
Brande's Encyclopedia of Science, Art and Literature,	1
McCulloch's Universal Gazetteer,	2
Murray's Encyclopedia of Geography,	3
McCulloch's Commercial Dictionary,	2
Cyclopedia of Biography,	1
Cyclopedia of History,	1
Chambers' Cyclopedia of English Literature,	2
Chambers' Information for the People,	2
Baldwin's Pronouncing Gazetteer,	1
Encyclopedia of Agriculture,	1
Ure Dictionary of Arts and Science,	2
Webster's Encyclopedia of Domestic Economy,	1
Morse's North American Atlas,	1
Universal Atlas,	1
Butler's Ancient Geography,	1
Potter's Hand-Book for Readers,	1
Pycroft's Course of Reading,	1

Religion, (*Natural and Revealed.*)

Kitto's Cyclopedia of Biblical Literature,	2
The Obligations of the World to the Bible, by Dr. Spring,	1
Horne's Introduction to the Study of the Bible,	1
Butler's Analogy of Natural and Revealed Religion,	1
Paley's Natural Theology, with Lord Brougham's Notes,	2
Bridgewater Treatises on the Power, Wisdom, and Goodness of God, as manifested in the Creation,	7

Wiseman, on the Connection of Science and Religion, 1
Paley's Evidences of Christianity, 1
Turner's Sacred History of the World philosophically considered, 3
Biblical Legends of the Mussulman, 1
Milman's History of the Jews, 3
Milman's History of Christianity, 1
Parterini's General History of the Christian Church, 1
Ranke's History of the Popes, 1
D'Aubigne's History of the Reformation, 4
Spaulding's Review of D'Aubigne's History, 1
Digby's Ages of Faith, 2
History of Missions, 1
History of the different Religious Denominations in the United States, by Members of the respective Denominations, 1
Baird's View of Religion in America, 1
Imitation of the Life of Christ, 1

[For a variety of religious reading, see MISCELLANEOUS BOOKS.]

Law and Government.

Wheaton on the Law of Nations, 1
Gardner on the Moral Law of Nations and American Polity, 1
Blackstone's Commentaries on the Common Law of England, 4
Hallam's Constitutional History of England, 3
Constitution of the United States, and of the several States, 1
Story on the Constitution of the United States, 1
The Federalist, by Madison, Jay and Hamilton, 1
Kent's Commentaries on the Constitution and American Law, 4
Messages (Annual and Special) of the several Presidents of the United States to Congress, 2
Marshall's Decisions of Cases of Constitutional Law, 1
Class Book on the Constitution of the United States, by Hart, 1
Public Statutes of Rhode-Island, 1
Angell's Reports of the Supreme Court of Rhode-Island, 1
Democracy in America, by De Tocqueville, 2
Democracy in France, by Dumas, 1
The People in France, by Michelet, 1
The American Democrat, by Cooper, 1
The Legal Rights of Woman, by Mansfield, 1
The Citizen of a Republic, 1
Cushing's Manual of Parliamentary Practice, 1

Education.

Schools and School Systems.
Connecticut Common School Journal, 1838–'42, 4

Connecticut Common School Manual, 1846–'7, 1
Massachusetts Common School Journal, 1839–'47, 8
New-York District School Journal, 1844–'45, 1
Journal of the Rhode-Island Institute of Instruction, 1
Pennsylvania Common School Journal, 1844, 1
Common School System of N. York. *S. S. Randall*, 1
School Laws and Returns of School Committees of Massachusetts,
Reports relating to the Public Schools of Providence, 1
Barnard's Report on the Public Schools of R. Island, 1
Annals of Education for 1836–'37, 2
Education of Mothers. *L. Arme Martin*, 1
Theory and Practice of Teaching. *D. P. Page*, 1
The School and School Master, 1
History of Sunday Schools. *Lewis G. Pray*, 1
Exercises on the Black Board. *John Goldsbury*, 1
The Teacher's Institute. *William B. Fowle*, 1
The Teacher's Manual. *Thomas H. Palmer*, 1
Lectures on Education. *Horace Mann*, 1
The Teacher Taught. *Emerson Davis*, 1
The District School as it was. *W. Burton*, 1
Slate and Black Board Exercises. *W. A. Alcott*, 1
Mental Cultivation and Excitement. *A. Brigham*, 1
Confessions of a School Master. *W. A. Alcott*, 1
Common Schools and Teachers' Seminaries. *C. E. Stowe*, 1
History of Education. *H. I. Smith*, 1

Domestic Education and Economy.
Humphrey's Domestic Education, 1
Beecher's Domestic Economy, 1
" " Receipt Book, 1
The Mother's Book, by Mrs. Child, 1
Phelps' Fireside Friend, 1
Combe on Infancy, 1
Thompson's Management of the Sick Room, 1
Shaw's Medical Remembrancer, 1
Hand Book of Needle Work, 1
Leslie's Lady's Receipt Book, 1
Frugal Housewife, by Mrs. Child, 1
Webster's Encyclopædia of Domestic Economy, 1

Physical Education and Physiology.
Education of the Senses, 1
Griscom's Animal Mechanism and Physiology, 1
Combe's Principles of Physiology, 1
" Constitution of Man, 1
Johnson's Economy of Health, 1
Alcott's House I Live in, 1
Warren on the Preservation of Health, 1

Self-Education, &c.

Pycroft's Course of Reading,	1
Cobbett's Advice to Young Men,	1
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" " Young Men,	1
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The Young Lady's Friend,	1
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The Young Maiden, by Muzzy,	1
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Self-Culture for Young Men, by Dr. Channing,	1
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Agriculture.

Fruit and Fruit Trees of America. *A. J. Downing*,	1
Agricultural Chemistry. *J. F. W. Johnston*,	1
New American Gardener. *T. G. Fessenden*,	1
Farmer's Dictionary. *D. P. Gardner*,	1
The Farmer's Companion. *J. Buel*,	1
The Complete Farmer. *T. G. Fessenden*,	1
Catechism of Agricultural Chemistry. *J. F. W. Johnston*,	1
American Farmer's Encyclopedia. *C. W. Johnston*,	1
Youatt on the Horse. *J. S. Skinner*,	1
Do. " " Pig.	1
Cultivation of the Grape Vine. *C. Hoare*,	1
American Flower Garden Directory. *Robert Buist*,	1
The American Florist. *J. N. Eley*,	1
The American Gardener. *W. Cobbett*,	1
The Farmer's Instructor. *J. Buel*,	2
American Husbandry. *Gaylord & Tuel*,	1
Agriculture and Gardening. *J. Armstrong*,	1
The American Poultry Book. *M. R. Cock*,	1
The Honey Bee. *Edward Bevan*,	1
The Cultivator,	1
The Farmer's Library,	1
Journal of Agriculture,	1
The American Poulterer's Companion. *C. N. Bement*,	1
Ladies' Companion to the Flower Garden. *A. J. Downing*,	1

Commerce.

History of British Commerce, by Clark,
Book of Commerce,
M'Culloch's Commercial Dictionary,

Manufactures and Trades.

Beekman's History of Inventions,	2
Panorama of Trades and Professions, by Hazen,	1
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The Book of the Feet,	1
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Hand-Book of Architecture,	1
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Hints to Young Architects, by Wightwich,	1
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American House Carpenter, by Hatfield,	1
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Hints on Landscape Gardening,	1
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Browne's Trees of America,	1
Emerson's Trees and Shrubs of Massachusetts,	1

Fine Arts.

Reynolds' (Sir Joshua) Discourses on the Fine Arts,	1
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Hand Book of Painting,	1
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Coleridge's Aids to Reflection,	1

Logic, Rhetoric, Compositon and Elocution.

Whately's Elements of Logic,	1
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Macery's Principles of Eloquence,	1
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Gray's Botanical Text Book,	1
Elements of Vegetable Physiology,	1

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Practical Treatise on Road-Making,	1
Renwick's Practical Mechanic,	1
Working Man's Companion,	1
Allen's Mechanics,	1

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Thirlwall's History of Greece,	5
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Outline of Roman History, by Christian Knowledge Society,	1
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" Mesopotamia and Syria, by Frazer,	1
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Hallam's Middle Ages,	2
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James' History of Chivalry and the Crusaders,	1
" " Charlemagne,	1

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Machiavelli's Florentine Histories,	2
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Germany and North of Europe.

Kohlrausch's History of Germany,	1
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Schiller's Thirty Years War, 1
" Revolt of Netherlands, 1
Fletcher's History of Poland, 1
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France, Spain and Portugal.

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British Empire.

Compendium of English History, by Chris. Knowledge Soc. 1
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American Indians.

Drake's Book of the Indians, 1
Thatcher's Indian Biography, 2
" Traits of Indian Character, 2
Stone's Border Wars, 2
Poetry and History of Wyoming, 1
Frost's Book of the Indians, 1
Catlin's Indians of North America, 2

Particular States.

Chronicles of Plymouth, by Young, 1
" Massachusetts, " 1
Barber's Historical Collections of New England; Massachusetts; Connecticut; New York; New Jersey; Pennsylvania; Virginia; Ohio—1 vol. each, 8
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Russell's New-York Book, 1
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1. Williams' Key.
2. Gorton's Simplicity's Defence.
3. Potter's History of Narragansett.
4. Callender's Early History of Rhode-Island.
5. Staples' Annals of Providence.
Updike's History of the Rhode-Island Bar, 1
" " " Narragansett Church, 1
Proceedings and Code of Laws of the First General Assembly in Rhode-Island, 1
History of the First Baptist Church, Providence, by Hague, 1
History of Warren, by Tustin and Fessenden, 1
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Scripture Biography by Gallaudett,	7
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" Martyn,	1
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Distinguished Men of Ancient Times.

Plutrach's Lives,	4
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Famous Men of Ancient Times,	1
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" Julius Cæsar,	1
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Modern Biography, (General.)

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Artists and Literary and Scientific Men.
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" Sir Walter Scott, by Lockhart, 5
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English.
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Statesmen of Commonwealth of England, 1
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Female.
Biography of Pious Women, by Burder, 1
" Good Wives, by Mrs. Child, 1
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Lives of Female Sovereigns, by Mrs. Jameson, 1
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Memoirs of Mrs. Hemans,	1
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Mechanics and Self-Taught Men.

Life of Smeaton, and History of Light-Houses,	1
Biography of Eli Wheaton,	1
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Legal and Medical.

Eminent British Lawyers,	1
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Voyages and Travels.

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Parry's Voyages for a Northwest Passage,	2
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Fremont's Exploring Expedition beyond the Rocky Mountains, 1
Gregg's Commerce of the Prairies, 2
Travels in California, 1

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Argentine Republic, 1
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America and American People, 1
Miller's Rural Sketches, 1
Paraguay, 1
Parker's Tour to the Rocky Mountains, 1
Prairie Land, 1

Poetry.

Treatises respecting Poetry.

Lowth on Hebrew Poetry, 1
Herder's Spirit of Hebrew Poetry, 2
Coleridge on the study of the Greek and Roman Poets, 1
Hunt's Italian Poets, 2
Montgomery's Lectures on Poetry, 2
Hazlett's Lectures on English Poetry, 2

Latin and Greek Poets.

Homer's Iliad and Odessey—translated by Pope, 3
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Peters' Specimen of the Poetry of the Ancients, 1

Italian, Spanish, German, &c.

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Tasso—translated by Hunt, 1
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Walsh's British Poets, 50
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Miscellaneous and Juvenile.

Poetry for Home and School, 1
Keble's Christian Year, 1
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Lays for the Sabbath, 1
Hart's Class Book of English Poetry, 1
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Beauties of Shakspeare, 1
Poetry of the Passions, Affections, Flowers, Sentiments, 4

Miscellaneous Works.

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Schlegel's History of Literature, 1
D'Israeli's Curiosities of Literature and Literary Character, 1
Montgomery's Lectures on General Literature, 1
Goodrich's Book of Literature, 1
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Hallam's Literature of Europe, during the 16th Century, 2
Berrington's Literary History of the Middle Ages, 1
Bouterwick's History of Spanish Literature, 1
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The following Regulations relate to Libraries belonging to School Districts, in the State of New York, and were drawn up by Hon. John C. Spencer in 1839, Superintendent of Common Schools, who is clothed with power to make and enforce "regulations upon all persons and officers having charge of School Libraries or using the books thereof." As originaly published, they were accompanied by a Circular, explanatory of the objects, of School Dictrict Libraries; also by a set of Regulations, (designated No. 1.) respecting the principles to be regarded in the selection of books, and the duties of Librarian and Trustees. By Articles III and IV, it is made the duty of the Librarian to make out a complete Catalogue of all the books contained in the library which must be verified by the Trustees at least once a year. The Librarian is chargable for the value of any book lost, or injured. The following are Articles VII and VIII, of Regulations No. 1.

VII. The Librarian must cause to be pasted in each book belonging to the library, a printed or written label, or must write in the first blank leaf of each book, specifying that the book belongs to School District No. , in the town of , naming the town and giving the number of the district; and he is on no account to deliver out any book which has not such printed or written declaration in it. He is also to cause all the books to be covered with strong wrapping paper, on the back of which is to be written the title of the book, and its number in large figures. As new books are added, the numbers are to be continued, and they are in no case to be altered; so that if a book be lost, its number and title must still be continued on the catalogue, with a note that it is missing.

VIII. The Librarian must keep a blank book, that may be ruled across the width of the paper, so as to leave five columns of the proper size for the following entries, to be written lengthwise of the paper:—in the first column, the date of the delivery of any book to any inhabitant; in the second, the title of the book delivered, and its number; in the third, the name of the person to whom delivered; in the fourth, the date of its return; and in the fifth, remarks respecting its condition, in the following form:—

Time of delivery.	Title and No. of Book.	To whom.	When returned.	Condition.
1839, June 10.	History of Virginia. 43.	T. Jones.	20th June.	Good.

The proper width of each column can be ascertained by writing the different entries on a half sheet of paper, and seeing how much room they respectively occupy.

Regulations for the use of the Books in District Libraries, prescribed by the Superintendent of Common Schools, pursuant to the third section of the "Act respecting School District Libraries," passed April 15th, 1839.

I. The Librarian has charge of the books, and is responsible for their preservation and delivery to his successor.

II. A copy of the catalogue required to be made out by Articles III. and IV. of Regulations No. I., to be kept by the Librarian, open to the inspection of the inhabitants of the district at all reasonable times. It will be found convenient to affix a copy of it on the door of the book-case containing the library.

III. Books are to be delivered as follows:—

1st. Only to inhabitants of the district.

2d. One only can be delivered to an inhabitant at a time; and any one having a book out of the library must return it before he can receive another.

3d. No person upon whom a fine has been imposed by the Trustees under those Regulations, can receive a book while such a fine remains unpaid.

4th. A person under age cannot be permitted to take out a book unless he resides with some responsible inhabitant of the district; nor can he then receive a book if notice has been given by his parent or guardian, or the person with whom he resides, that they will not be responsible for books delivered such minor.

IV. Every book must be returned to the library within fourteen days after it shall have been taken out; but the same inhabitant may again take it, unless application has been made for it, while it was so out of the library, by any person entitled, who has not previously borrowed the same book, in which case such applicant shall have a preference in the use of it. And where there have been several such applicants, the preference shall be according to the priority in time of their applications, to be determined by the Librarian.

V. If a book be not returned at the proper time, the Librarian is to report the fact to the Trustees; and he must also exhibit to them every book which has been returned injured by soiling, defacing, tearing, or in any other way, before such book shall be again loaned out, together with the name of the inhabitant in whose possession it was when so injured.

VI. The Trustees of School Districts, being by virtue of their office Trustees of the library, are hereby authorized to impose the following fines:—

1st. For each day's detention of a book, beyond the time allowed by these regulations, six cents, but not to be imposed for more than ten days' detention.

2d. For the destruction or loss of a book, a fine equal to the full value of the book, or of the set, if it be one of a series, with the addition to such value of ten cents for each volume. And on the payment of such

fine, the party fined shall be entitled to the residue of the series. If he has also been fined for detaining such book, then the said ten cents shall not be added to the value.

3d. For any injury which a book may sustain after it shall be taken out by a borrower and before its return, a fine may be imposed of six cents for every spot of grease or oil upon the cover or upon any leaf of the volume; for writing in or defacing any book, not less than ten cents, nor more than the value of the book; for cutting or tearing the cover, or the binding, or any leaf not less than ten cents nor more than the value of the book.

4th. If a leaf be torn out, or so defaced or mutilated that it cannot be read, or if any thing be written in the volume, or any other injury done to it which renders it unfit for general circulation, the Trustees will consider it a destruction of the book, and shall impose a fine accordingly, as above provided in case of loss of a book.

5th. When a book shall have been detained seven days beyond the fourteen days allowed by these Regulations, the Librarian shall give notice to the borrower to return the same within three days. If not returned at that time, the Trustees may consider the book lost or destroyed, and may impose a fine for its destruction, in addition to the fines for its detention.

VII. But the imposition of a fine for the loss or destruction of a book, shall not prevent the trustees from recovering such book in an action of replevin, unless such fine shall have been paid.

VIII. When, in the opinion of the Librarian, any fine has been incurred by any person under these Regulations, he may refuse to deliver any book to the party liable to such fine, until the decision of the Trustees upon such liability be had.

IX. Previous to the imposition of any fine, two days' written or verbal notice is to be given by any Trustee, or the Librarian, or any other person authorized by either of them, to the person charged, to show cause why he should not be fined for the alleged offense or neglect. And if within that time good cause be not shown, the Trustees shall impose the fine herein prescribed. Nothing shall be deemed good cause, but the fact that the book was as much injured when it was taken out by the person charged, as it was when he returned it. As the loss arising from an injury, even by inevitable accident, must fall on some one, it is more just that it should be borne by the party whose duty it was to take care of the volume, than by the district. Negligence can only be prevented, and disputes can only be avoided, by the adoption of this rule.

X. It is the special duty of the Librarian to give notice to the borrower of a book that shall be returned injured, to show cause why he should not be fined. Such notice may be given to the agent of the borrower who returns the book; and it should always be given at the time the book is returned.

XI. The Librarian is to inform the Trustees of every notice given by him to show cause against the imposition of a fine; and they shall assemble at the time and place appointed by him, or by any notice given by them, or any one of them, and shall hear the charge and defence. They are to keep a book of minutes, in which every fine imposed by them, and the cause, shall be entered and signed by them, or the major part of them. Such original minutes, or a copy certified by them, or the major part of

them, or by the clerk of the district, shall be conclusive evidence of the fact that a fine was imposed, as stated in such minutes, according to these Regulations.

XII. It shall be the duty of the Trustees, to prosecute promptly for the collection of all fines imposed by them. Fines collected for the detention of books, or for injuries to them, are to be applied to defray the expense of repairing the books in the library. Fines collected for the loss or destruction of any book, or of a set or series of books, shall be applied to the purchase of the same or other suitable books.

XIII. These Regulations being declared by law "obligatory upon all persons and officers having charge of such libraries, or using or possessing any of the books thereof," it is expedient that they should be made known to every borrower of a book. And for that purpose a printed copy is to be affixed conspicuously on the case containing any library, or on one of such cases, if there be several; and the Librarian is to call the attention to them of any person on the first occasion of his taking out a book. * * *

The following is a copy of the Regulations which we prepared for the Library in District No. 6, in the First School Society of Hartford.

I. The District Committee for the time being, shall be held responsible for the preservation of the Library, and shall cause to be made out, one or more catalogues of the books, to be kept by the Librarian, and to be open to the inspection of the inhabitants of the District at all reasonable times.

II. The Teacher for the time being, or any other person residing in the district, may be entrusted with the charge of the Library, and held responsible for the preservation and delivery of the books, under such regulations as the District Committee may prescribe, not inconsistent with the regulations of the District.

III. The Library shall be open for the delivery of books on Wednesday and Saturday of each week, unless otherwise directed, at such hour as the District Committee may designate.

IV. Any inhabitant of the District, who shall express a willingness to comply with the regulations which may from time to time be prescribed by the District, and has paid up all fines duly imposed, and any minor residing in the District, whose parents, guardian, or any other inhabitant, will become responsible for any fines which may be imposed for the damage or detention of books taken by such minor, shall be entitled to the privileges of the Library.

V. Every person entitled to the privileges of the Library, may draw one book, and one only at a time, and retain the same for two weeks and no longer; but the same person may, after returning a book to the Librarian, take it again, unless application has been made for it by some one who had not previously borrowed the same, who shall, in that case, be entitled to its use.

VI. Any person who shall detain a book longer than fourteen days, shall forfeit and pay to the Librarian, two cents for each day's detention, until the fine shall equal the value of the book, and at the expiration of such time, due notice shall be given by the Librarian to the borrower, to return such book within three days, and in case of its longer detention, the full value of the book, or of the set to which it belongs, shall be charged to the borrower, and on the payment of such fine, the book or set may be claimed and taken by the borrower.

VII. Any person, who shall injure or deface any book belonging to the Library, shall forfeit and pay such sum as shall be assessed by the District Committee or the Librarian, with the liberty of appeal to the District Committee; provided the sum so assessed, shall not exceed the full value of the book, or of the set, if it belongs to one; and all fines either for detention or damage of books, shall be applied to the benefit of the Library.

VIII. No book shall be taken away from the Library, until the name or the number of the book, the name of the person taking it, and the day on which it is taken, are entered in a book to be provided for that purpose, and every person shall be held responsible for any book charged to him, until he sees the above entry erased, or crossed, on his returning the book to the Librarian.

IX. Such books as may have been, or may hereafter be given to the Library, with the understanding that they were to be accessible to teachers or other persons, residing without the District, will be to such extent excepted from the operation of the rules and regulations, and such books as the District Committee may specially direct to be retained in the Library, shall not be delivered to any person, without a written permission from the Committee.

X. The District Committee shall, at the close of their official year, and at such other times as may be required, make a report to the District on the condition of the Library.

By a By-Law of the "Public School Society," of the City of New-York, it is provided that there shall be a library in every Public School building under the following

"*Rules and Regulations.*"

"1. The Library shall be kept in the Male Department of each Public School.

"2. The male teacher, or his assistant, shall act in all cases as principal librarian—the female teacher, or her assistant, as librarian for her department. A blank book shall be furnished them, in which it shall be their duty to enter by its number, every book given out, the name of the pupil to whom given, with age, date of delivery, and return of each book, with appropriate remarks.

"3. The time of giving out books shall be Friday of each week, after school hours; the time of returning them, on Friday morning. The pupils, on returning books, shall, if another be wanted, place a piece of paper in the book returned, containing a series of catalogue numbers, showing their 1st, 2d, 3d, &c., choice, and it shall be the duty of the librarian to assist and advise them in the selection of books suited to their capacities, and on their return, to question them, so far as opportunity may permit, as to the subject matter they contain.

"4. All duodecimo volumes, and those of smaller size, may be retained two weeks—those of octavo size, four weeks.

"5. The use of the library to be open to all children attending the schools, with the privilege of drawing such books, subject to the sound discretion and advice of the librarian, as they can read understandingly.

"6. The Library Committee, or a Special Committee to be appointed for the purpose, shall attend at the Spring and Fall examination of the schools, for the purpose of making a thorough examination into the state and condition of the libraries, and of receiving from each librarian, such report as shall be required, on a blank form furnished for the purpose; and it shall be the duty of said committee to make out an abstract report of the whole, with such remarks and suggestions as they may deem advisable, to the Board in the Spring, and to the Executive Committee in the Fall, at the first meeting of each after the completion of said examination; the books in each library to be called in previously to the examination of each school respectively."

The following Rules for the Library and Reading Room owned by an Incorporated Association were drawn up by us a few years since, and have worked well. They may serve as a guide to similar associations in this State.

Rules of the Library.

1. It shall be the duty of the Librarian to attend at the rooms of the Institute every day, Sundays excepted, from 10 o'clock A. M., until 10 P. M., to take charge of the Library and Reading Room, and other property of the Institute. He shall observe the Instructions which may be given him by the Executive Committee, and take care that all the regulations relating to the Library and Reading Room are strictly observed.

2. Every member of the Institute, who shall have paid all sums due from him to the Institute, and made good all damage and loss which he may have occasioned, and any person by paying $2,00 a year in advance to the Librarian,) shall be entitled to all the privileges of the Library and Reading Room.

3. The Library shall be open for the delivery and receipt of books, every day, Sundays excepted, from 10 A. M. until 9 P. M.

4. No book shall be taken from the Library Room without the consent of the Librarian, and until the name of the person taking it, together with the title or number of the book is duly entered, if to be read or consulted in the Reading Room, on a slate,—if to be taken home, in a book to be kept for that purpose; and every person will be held responsible for any book charged to him, unless he sees the above entry erased, or *returned* written against it, on his returning the book to the Librarian.

5. Every person entitled to the privileges of the Library may have the use of two books and no more, at one time, and may retain the same for two weeks, and no longer, unless renewed at the end of that time for a week.

6. Any person who shall retain a book longer than two weeks, unless renewed, and in that case longer than three weeks, shall forfeit and pay to the Librarian, for every day of the first week of such detention, two cents, and for every day of each succeeding week the forfeiture shall be doubled.

7. Any person who shall injure, deface, or fail to return any book belonging to the Library, shall forfeit and pay such sum as shall be assessed by the Librarian, with the liberty of an appeal to the Executive Committee, for such default or damage; and if the work lost or injured be one of a set, he shall pay the full value of said set, and may then receive the remaining volumes as his property.

8. Such books as may from time to time be specially designated by the Executive Committee, shall not be taken from the Library, excep by their permission, and on such conditions as they may prescribe.

Rules of the Reading Room.

1. Any member of the Institute may introduce a friend, not a resident of to the privileges of the Reading Room, for the term of four weeks, who shall receive a ticket of admission from the Librarian, and whose name, together with that of the member introducing him, shall be registered in a book provided for that purpose.

2. Any person entitled to the privileges of the Reading Room, may draw from the Library any book to be read or consulted in the Reading Room, on the Librarian's entering his name, together with the title and number of the book, on a slate.

3. No periodical, pamphlet, or book of reference which may be placed in the Reading Room, shall be taken from the same without a permission in writing from the Executive Committee.

4. Any person who shall mutilate or deface the periodicals, or pamphlets, or books of the Reading Room, shall be liable to a fine equal to the value thereof.

5. No loud conversation shall be allowed in the Reading Room, and any conduct inconsistent with perfect order and decorum, shall subject the offender to a deprivation of the privileges of the same.

LIBRARY OF REFERENCE.

It is to be hoped that a Library of Reference will soon be provided for every school. The following rules adopted for libraries of this character, in one of the Grammar Schools of Providence, will be found useful elsewhere.

This book belongs to the Arnold-street Grammar School Library of Reference books, furnished at the public expense, for the use of all the teachers and pupils in the school.

No books shall be drawn from the Library except by teachers, who may take any book for their own use, or that of their pupils, by merely inserting in a blank book kept in the Library for the purpose, the *date* of drawing, the *title* of the book and the *name* of the drawer.

Pupils wishing to use any of these books may apply to their teachers, who will draw the books for them ; and all pupils thus using Library Books are responsible for their safe keeping and return to their teachers, and also for any *injuries* that may be done to the books while in their possession.

Pupils are not allowed to *lend*, to others, books which may have been drawn for themselves, *without* permission from the teacher who drew the books.

All books must be drawn *before* school, or *during* the times of recess in the room where the books are kept, and all books must be returned *every day*, *after* school, and the word " returned," written in the blank book on the line where the book is charged.

No person is allowed to carry any Library Book out of the school building. All pupils neglecting to observe these regulations, or in any way misusing a Library Book, may be deprived of the use of the Library for such length of time as the Principal may specify.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

The subject of a Normal School is distinctly and ably presented to the consideration of the members of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction, and of the citizens of the State, in the Report of the Executive Committee. Under this head we intended to have presented a plan which should include a number of agencies which have been tried separately in this State and elsewhere, and found successful, in one system, under the name of the "STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AND RHODE ISLAND INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION." By such an Institution, it is believed, that all which has thus far been accomplished for the professional education and training of teachers, the awakening of public interest, and the diffusion of intelligence among the people on the subject of schools and education, by the circulation of books and pamphlets, public addresses, courses of popular lectures, teachers' institutes, associations and meetings, itinerating normal school agencies and normal schools, can be more systematically accomplished, than has yet been done in any other state. The munificent offer by Charles Potter, Esq. of Providence, of the building known as the Tockwotton House, (which cost originally between sixty and seventy thousand dollars,) for the purpose of a Normal School, on condition that a permanent fund, sufficiently large to meet the annual expenses of such a school, should be provided, has placed it in the power of the Legislature, and of the friends of educational improvement in Rhode Island, to take a long stride upward and onward in the work in which they are now engaged. We shall make the development of this plan the subject of a special communication to the Legislature, and in the mean time we give the history and organization of the Normal Schools of Massachusetts and New York.

State Normal Schools in Massachusetts.

The following brief account of the history and organization of the State Normal Schools, in Massachusetts, is copied from the "Tenth Annual Report of the Secretary of the Board of Education."

"In a communication made by the Secretary of the Board of Education to the Legislature, dated March 12, 1838, it was stated that private munificence had placed at his disposal the sum of ten thousand dollars, to be expended, under the direction of the Board of Education, for qualifying teachers for our Common Schools, on condition that the Legislature would place in the hands of the Board an equal sum, to be expended for the same purpose.

On the 19th of April, of the same year, resolves were passed, accepting the proposition, and authorizing the Governor, with the advice and consent of the Council, to draw his warrant upon the treasurer for the sum of ten thousand dollars, to be placed at the disposal of the Board for the purpose specified in the original communication."

The following is a copy of the Resolve and of the Report of the Committee on the subject:

"The Joint Committee, to whom was referred the communication of the Hon. Horace Mann, Secretary of the Board of Education, relative to a fund for the promotion of the cause of popular education in this Commonwealth, and also the memorial of the Nantucket County Association for the promotion of education, and the improvement of schools, and also the petition and memorial of the inhabitants of the town of Nantucket, on the same subject, having duly considered the matter therein embraced, respectfully report,

That the highest interest in Massachusetts is, and will always continue to be, the just and equal instruction of all her citizens, so far as the circumstances of each individual will permit to be imparted; that her chief glory, for two hundred years, has been the extent to which this instruction was diffused, the result of the provident legislation, to promote the common cause, and secure the perpetuity of the common interest; that for many years a well-grounded apprehension has been entertained, of the neglect of our common town schools by large portions of our community, and of the comparative degradation to which these institutions might fall from such neglect; that the friends of universal education have long looked to the Legislature for the establishment of one or more seminaries devoted to the purpose of supplying qualified teachers, for the town and district schools, by whose action alone other judicious provisions of the law could be carried into full effect; that at various times, the deliberation of both branches of the General Court has been bestowed upon this, among other subjects, most intimately relating to the benefit of the rising generation and of all generations to come, particularly when the provision for instruction of school teachers was specially urged on their consideration, in 1827, by the message of the Governor, and a report thereupon, accompanied by a bill, was submitted by the chairman, now a member of the Congress of the United States, following out to their fair conclusions, the suggestion of the Executive, and the forcible essays of a distinguished advocate of this institution at great length, published and widely promulgated; that although much has been done within two or three years, for the encouragement of our town schools by positive enactment, and more by the liberal spirit, newly awakened in our several communities, yet the number of competent teachers is found, by universal experience, so far inadequate to supply the demand for them, as to be the principal obstacle to improvement, and the greatest deficiency of our republic; that we can hardly expect, as in the memorials from Nantucket is suggested, to remove this deficiency even in a partial degree, much less to realize the completion of the felicitous system of our free schools, without adopting means for

more uniform modes of tuition and government in them, without better observing the rules of prudence in the selection of our common books, the unlimited diversity of which is complained of throughout the State, and that these benefits may reasonably be expected to follow from no other course than a well-devised scheme in full operation, for the education of teachers; that the announcement, in the communication recently received from the Secretary of the Board of Education, of that private munificence, which offers $10,000 to this Commonwealth, for removal of this general want, at least in the adoption of initiatory measures of remedy, is received by us with peculiar pleasure, and, in order that the General Court may consummate this good, by carrying forward the benevolent object of the unknown benefactor, the committee conclude, with recommending the passage of the subjoined resolutions.

All which is respectfully submitted,

JAMES SAVAGE, per order.

RESOLVES

RELATIVE TO QUALIFYING TEACHERS FOR COMMON SCHOOLS.

Whereas, by letter from the Honorable Horace Mann, Secretary of the Board of Education, addressed, on the 12th March current, to the President of the Senate, and the Speaker of the House of Representatives, it appears, that private munificence has placed at his disposal the sum of ten thousand dollars, to promote the cause of popular education in Massachusetts, on condition that the Commonwealth will contribute from unappropriated funds, the same amount in aid of the same cause, the two sums to be drawn upon equally from time to time, as needed, and to be disbursed under the direction of the Board of Education in qualifying teachers for our Common Schools; therefore,

Resolved, That his Excellency, the Governor, be, and he is hereby authorized and requested, by and with the advice and consent of the Council, to draw his warrant upon the Treasurer of the Commonwealth in favor of the Board of Education, for the sum of $10,000, in such installments and at such times, as said Board may request: *provided*, said Board, in their request, shall certify, that the Secretary of said Board has placed at their disposal an amount equal to that for which such application may by them be made; both sums to be expended, under the direction of said Board, in qualifying teachers for the Common Schools in Massachusetts.

Resolved, That the Board of Education shall render an annual account of the manner in which said moneys have been by them expended."

"The Board, after mature deliberation, decided to establish three Normal Schools; one for the north-eastern, one for the south-eastern, and one for the western part of the State. Accordingly, one was opened at Lexington, in the county of Middlesex, on the 3d day of July, 1839. This school, having outgrown its accommodations at Lexington, was removed to West Newton, in the same county, in Sept., 1844, where it now occupies a commodious building.

The second Normal School was opened at Barre, in the county of Worcester, on the 4th day of September, 1839. This school has since been removed to Westfield, in the county of Hampden, both on account of the insufficiency of the accommodations at Barre, and because the latter place is situated east of the centre of population of the western counties.

The third school was opened at Bridgewater, on the 9th day of Sept., 1840, and is permanently located at that place.

For the two last-named schools, there had been, from the beginning, very inadequate school-room accommodations. In the winter of 1845, a memorial, on behalf of certain friends of education in the city of Boston and its vicinity, was presented to the Legislature, offering the sum of five thousand dollars, to be obtained by private subscriptions, on condition that the Legislature would give an equal sum, for the purpose of erecting two Normal School-houses; one for the school at Westfield and one for that at Bridgewater. By resolves of March 29, 1845, the proposition of

the memorialists was accepted and the grant made; and by the same resolves it was ordered, 'that the schools heretofore known as Normal Schools, shall be hereafter designated as State Normal Schools.'

The school at West Newton is appropriated exclusively to females; those at Bridgewater and Westfield admit both sexes.

Among the standing regulations adopted by the Board, for the government of the State Normal Schools, are the following—most of which were adopted in the beginning, and have been constantly in force; only a few modifications, and those very slight ones, having since been introduced:

Admission. As a prerequisite to admission, candidates must declare it to be their intention to qualify themselves to become school teachers. If they belong to the State, or have an intention and a reasonable expectation of keeping school in the State, tuition is gratuitous. Otherwise, a tuition-fee is charged, which is intended to be about the same as is usually charged at good academies in the same neighborhood. If pupils, after having completed a course of study at the State Normal Schools, immediately engage in school keeping, but leave the State, or enter a private school or an academy, they are considered as having waived the privilege growing out of their declared intention to keep a Common School in Massachusetts, and are held bound in honor to pay a tuition-fee for their instruction.

If males, pupils must have attained the age of seventeen years complete, and of sixteen, if females; and they must be free from any disease or infirmity, which would unfit them for the office of school teachers.

They must undergo an examination, and prove themselves to be well versed in orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography and arithmetic.

They must furnish satisfactory evidence of good intellectual capacity and of high moral character and principles.

Examinations for admission take place at the commencement of each term, of which there are three in a year.

Term of Study. At West Newton and Bridgewater, the minimum of the term of study is one year, and this must be in consecutive terms of the schools. In regard to the school at Westfield, owing to the unwillingness of the pupils in that section of the State to remain at the school, even for so short a time as one year, the rule requiring a year's residence has been from time to time suspended. It is found to be universally true, that those applicants whose qualifications are best, are desirous to remain at the school the longest.

Course of Study. The studies first to be attended to in the State Normal Schools, are those which the law requires to be taught in the district schools, namely, orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography and arithmetic. When these are mastered, those of a higher order will be progressively taken.

For those who wish to remain at the school more than one year, and for all belonging to the school, so far as their previous attainments will permit, the following course is arranged:

1. Orthography, reading, grammar, composition, rhetoric and logic.
2. Writing and drawing.
3. Arithmetic, mental and written, algebra, geometry, book-keeping, navigation, surveying.
4. Geography, ancient and modern, with chronology, statistics and general history.
5. Human Physiology, and hygiene or the Laws of Health.
6. Mental Philosophy.
7. Music.

8. Constitution and History of Massachusetts and of the United States.
9. Natural Philosophy and Astronomy.
10. Natural History.
11. The principles of piety and morality, common to all sects of Christians.
12. THE SCIENCE AND ART OF TEACHING WITH REFERENCE TO ALL THE ABOVE NAMED STUDIES.

RELIGIOUS EXERCISES. A portion of the Scriptures shall be read daily, in every State Normal School.

VISITERS. Each Normal School is under the immediate inspection of a Board of Visiters, who are in all cases to be members of the Board of Education, except that the Secretary of the Board may be appointed as one of the visiters of each school.

The Board appoints one Principal Instructor for each school, who is responsible for its government and instruction, subject to the rules of the Board, and the supervision of the Visiters. The Visiters of the respective schools appoint the assistant instructors thereof.

To each Normal School, an Experimental or Model School is attached. This School is under the control of the Principal of the Normal School. The pupils of the Normal School assist in teaching it. Here, the knowledge which they acquire in the science of teaching, is practically applied. The art is made to grow out of the science, instead of being empirical. The Principal of the Normal School inspects the Model School more or less, daily. He observes the manner in which his own pupils exemplify, in practice, the principles he has taught them. Sometimes, all the pupils of the Normal School, together with the Principal, visit the Model School in a body, to observe the manner in which the teachers of the latter, for the time being, conduct the recitations or exercises. Then, returning to their own school-room, in company with the assistant teachers themselves, who have been the objects of inspection, each one is called upon to deliver his views, whether commendatory or otherwise, respecting the manner in which the work has been performed. At this amicable exposition of merits and defects, the Principal of the Normal School presides. After all others have presented their views, he delivers his own; and thus his pupils, at the threshold of their practice, have an opportunity to acquire confidence in a good cause, of which they might otherwise entertain doubts, and to rectify errors which otherwise would fossilize into habit.

The salaries of the teachers of the State Normal Schools are paid by the State."

New York State Normal School.

The history of the efforts to secure a professional education and training for the teachers of common schools in the State of New York, is full of instruction and encouragement to those who are laboring in the same direction in other States. Among the earliest and most earnest advocates of legislative provision on this subject, stands the name of De Witt Clinton. In his message to the Legislature in 1819, Governor Clinton remarks:

"The most durable impressions are derived from the first stages of education; ignorant and vicious preceptors and injudicious and ill-arranged systems of education must have a most pernicious influence upon the habits, manners, morals and minds of our youth, and vitiate their conduct through life." In 1820, he used the following language: "The education of youth is an important trust, and an honorable vocation, but it is too often committed to unskillful hands. Liberal encouragement ought to be dispensed for increasing the number of competent teachers." In 1825, after speaking of the cause of education generally, the Governor says: "In furtherance of this invaluable system, I recommend to your consideration the education of competent teachers," &c.

In his message to the Legislature, at the opening of the session of 1826, he thus adverts to the subject of the proper preparation of common school teachers:

"Our system of instruction, with all its numerous benefits, is still, however, susceptible of improvement. Ten years of the life of a child may now be spent in a common school. In two years the elements of instruction may be acquired, and the remaining eight years must either be spent in repetition or idleness, unless the teachers of common schools are competent to instruct in the higher branches of knowledge. The outlines of geography, algebra, mineralogy, agricultural chemistry, mechanical philosophy, surveying, geometry, astronomy, political economy and ethics, might be communicated in that period of time, by able preceptors, without essential inteference with the calls of domestic industry. The vocation of a teacher in its influence on the character and destiny of the rising and all future generations, has either not been fully understood, or duly estimated. It is, or ought to be, ranked among the learned professions. With a full admission of the merits of several who now officiate in that capacity, still it must be conceded that the information of many of the instructors of our common schools does not extend beyond rudimental education; that our expanding population requires constant accession to their numbers; and that to realize these views, it is necessary that some new plan for obtaining able teachers should be devised. I therefore recommend a seminary for the education of teachers in those useful branches of knowledge which are proper to engraft on elementary attainments. A compliance with this recommendation will have the most benign influence on individual happiness and social prosperity."

And again, in his message in 1828, Governor Clinton urges the subject on the attention of the Legislature.

"It may be taken for granted, that the education of the body of the people can never attain the requisite perfection without competent instructors, well acquainted with the outlines of literature and the elements of science." He recommends with this view, "a law authorizing the supervisors of each county to raise a sum not exceeding $2000, provided

that the same sum is subscribed by individuals, for the erection of a suitable edifice for a Monitorial High School, in the county town. I can conceive of no reasonable objection to the adoption of a measure so well calculated to raise the character of our school masters, and to double the powers of our artizans by giving them a scientific education."

In 1826, Hon. John C. Spencer, from the Literature Committee of the Senate, to whom the message of Governor Clinton for that year had been referred, made a report, recommending among other plans for the improvement of common schools, that the income of the "Literature Fund" be divided among the academies of the State, *not* in reference to the number of *classical students* in each, but "to the number of persons instructed in each, who shall have been licensed as teachers of common schools by a proper board." He thus introduces the subject:

"In the view which the committee have taken, our great reliance for nurseries of teachers must be placed on our colleges and academies. If they do not answer this purpose, they can be of very little use. That they have not hitherto been more extensively useful in that respect is owing to inherent defects in the system of studies pursued there. When the heads of our colleges are apprised of the great want of teachers which it is so completely in their power to relieve, if not supply, it is but reasonable to expect that they will adopt a system by which young men whose pursuits do not require a knowledge of classics, may avail themselves of the talent and instruction in those institutions, suited to their wants, without being compelled also to receive that which they do not want, and for which they have neither time nor money."

"In 1827, Mr. Spencer, from the same Committee, reported a bill entitled 'An act to provide permanent funds for the annual appropriation to common schools, to increase the Literature Fund, and to promote the education of teachers,' by which the sum of $150,000 was added to the Literature Fund. And the Regents of the University were required annually to distribute the whole income of this fund among the several incorporated academies and seminaries, which then were or might thereafter become subject to their visitation, 'in proportion to the number of pupils instructed in each academy or seminary for six months during the preceding year, who shall have pursued classical studies, or the higher branches of English education, or both.' In the report accompanying this bill, which, on the 13th of April, became a law, the committee expressly observe, that their object in thus increasing this fund is 'to promote the education of young men in those studies which will prepare them for the business of instruction, which it is hoped may be accomplished to some extent, by offering inducements to the trustees of academies to educate pupils of that description.' 'In vain will you have established a system of instruction; in vain will you appropriate money to educate the children of the poor, if you do not provide persons competent to execute your system, and to teach the pupils collected in the schools. And every citizen who has paid attention to it and become acquainted practically with the situation of our schools, knows that the incompetency of the great mass of teachers is a radical defect which impedes the whole system, frustrates the benevolent designs of the Legislature, and defeats the hopes and wishes of all who feel an interest in disseminating the blessings of education.' 'Having undertaken a system of public instruction, it is the solemn duty of the Legislature to make that system as perfect as possible. We have no right to trifle with

the funds of our constituents, by applying them in a mode which fails to attain the intended object. Competent teachers of common schools must be provided; the academies of the State furnish the means of making that provision. There are funds which may be safely and properly applied to that object, and if there were none, a more just, patriotic, and in its true sense, popular reason for taxation cannot be urged. Let us aid the efforts of meritorious citizens who have devoted large portions of their means to the rearing of academies; let us reward them by giving success to their efforts; let us sustain seminaries that are falling into decay; let us revive the drooping and animate the prosperous, by cheering rays of public beneficence; and thus let us provide nurseries for the education of our children, and for the instruction of teachers who will expand and widen and deepen the great stream of education, until it shall reach our remotest borders, and prepare our posterity for the maintenance of the glory and prosperity of their country.'"

The legal provision for the better education of teachers rested on this basis until 1834, when an act was passed, by which the surplus income of the Literature Fund over twelve thousand dollars was placed at the disposal of the Regents of the University, to be by them distributed to such academies, subject to their visitation as they might select, and to be *exclusively devoted to the education of teachers for the common schools*, in such manner and under such regulations as they might prescribe.

In pursuance of the provisions of the act of 2d of May, 1834, authorizing the Regents of the University to apply a part of the income to the Literature Fund to the education of common school teachers, a plan was reported on the 8th of January, 1835, by Gen. Dix, from the committee appointed for that purpose, to the Regents with the view of carrying into effect the intention of the act. This plan was approved and adopted by the Regents; and one academy was selected in each of the eight Senate districts, charged with the establishment of a Department specially adapted to the instruction of teachers of common schools. To support these departments, each academy received from the Literature Fund, a sufficient sum to procure the necessary apparatus for the illustration of the various branches required to be taught; the sum of $191 to be appropriated to the enlargement of the academical library; and an annual appropriation of $400 to meet the increased expense which might devolve upon the institution in consequence of the establishment of the teachers' department.

In his annual Report for 1836, the Superintendent (Gen. Dix,) again adverts to the fact, that in the adoption of this system 'the Legislature has merely provided for the more complete execution of a design long entertained, so far as respects the employment of the academies for this purpose. The propriety of founding separate institutions," he continues, 'upon the model of the seminaries for teachers in Prussia, was for several years a subject of public discussion in this State. It was contended, on the one hand, that such institutions would be more likely to secure the object in view; and on the other, that it might be as effectually and more readily accomplished through the organized academies.' After again referring to the act of April 13, 1827, he concludes:

"Thus although the plan of engrafting upon the academies, departments for the preparation of teachers, may not have been contemplated at the time, yet this measure is to be regarded only as a more complete development of the design of the Legislature in passing the act referred to."

"By the 8th section of the act of April 17, 1838, appropriating the income of the United States Deposite Fund to the purposes of education,

&c., the sum of $28,000 was directed to be annually paid over to the Literature Fund, and apportioned among the several academies of the State; and by the 9th section, it was made the duty of the Regents of the University 'to require every academy receiving a distributive share of public money, under the preceding section equal to seven hundred dollars per annum, to establish and maintain in such academy, a department for the instruction of common school teachers, under the direction of the said Regents, as a condition of receiving the distributive share of every such academy.' Under this provision eight academies, in addition to those designated specially for this purpose by the Regents, established departments for the education of teachers.

Desirous of knowing the practical operation of the departments thus organized, the superintendent (Mr. SPENCER) during the summer of 1840, commissioned the Rev. Dr. Potter of Union College, and D. H. Little, Esq. of Cherry-Valley, to visit these institutions, and report the result of their examinations to the department, accompanied by such suggestions as they might deem expedient. Prof. Potter in his report, after enumerating the various advantages and defects which had presented themselves to his observation in the course of his examination, observes in conclusion:

'The principal evil connected with our present means of training teachers, is, that they contribute to supply instructors for *select* rather than for common schools; and that for want of special exercises, they perform even that work imperfectly. I would suggest whether some means might not be adopted for training a class of teachers, with more especial reference to country common schools, and to primary schools in villages and cities; teachers whose attainments should not extend much beyond the common English branches, but whose minds should be awakened by proper influence; who should be made familiar by practice with the best modes of teaching; and who should come under strong obligations to teach for at least two or three years. In Prussia and France, normal schools are supported at the public expense; most of the pupils receive both board and tuition gratuitously; but at the close of the course they give bonds to refund the whole amount received, unless they teach under the direction of the government for a certain number of years. That such schools, devoted exclusively to the preparation of teaching, have some advantages over any other method, is sufficiently apparent from the experience of other nations: and it has occurred to me that, as supplementary to our present system, the establishment of one in this State might be eminently useful. If placed under proper auspices and located near the Capitol, where it could enjoy the supervision of the Superintendent of Common Schools, and be visited by the members of the Legislature, it might contribute in many ways to raise the tone of instruction throughout the State.'

From an examination of these reports, the Superintendent comes to the conclusion that 'these departments ought not to be abandoned, but sustained and encouraged, and the means of establishing a large number in other academies provided. They, with the other academies and colleges of the State, furnish the supply of teachers indispensable to the maintenance of our schools.' He recommends 'the extension of the public patronage to all the academies in the State, to enable them to establish teachers' departments; and in those counties where there are no academies, the establishment of normal schools.' 'One model school or more,' he thinks, 'might be advantageously established in some central parts of the State, to which teachers, and those intending to be such, might repair to acquire the best methods of conducting our common schools.'

By a resolution adopted by the Regents of the University, on the 4th of May of the same year, eight additional academies were designated for the establishment and maintenance of teachers' departments; and the appropriation to each of the institutions in which such departments had been organized by the Regents, reduced to $300 per annum. At this period, including the academies which were required, under the act of 1838, to maintain such departments in consequence of the receipt of a specified portion of the Literature Fund, the number of academies in which departments for the education of teachers were organized was twenty-three, and the number of students taught in them about six hundred."

The above facts and extracts have been principally gathered from a "Report of the Committee on Colleges, Academies, and Common Schools," to the House of Representatives in 1844, of which Mr. Hulburd, of St. Lawrence, was chairman, and the author of the able document referred to. The Committee, on passing to the consideration of a State Normal School, remark:

"From this recapitulation, it will appear that the principal reliance of the friends and supporters of the common schools, for an adequate supply of teachers, has, from a very early period, been upon the academies; that the inability of the latter to supply this demand, induced, in 1827, an increase of $150,000 of the fund, applicable to their support; and this for the express purpose of enabling them to accomplish this object; that the Regents of the University, the guardians of these institutions, characterized this increase of the fund as an unwonted and "extraordinary" act of liberality on the part of the State towards them; explicitly recognized the condition, or rather the avowed *expectations* on which it was granted; accepted the trust, and undertook to perform those conditions, and to fulfill those expectations; that, to use the language of one of the superintendents, 'the design of the law was not sustained by the measures necessary to give it the form and effect of a system;' that to remedy this evil, one academy was specially designated in each Senate district, with an endowment of $500 to provide the necessary means and facilities of instruction, and an annual appropriation of $400, for the maintenance of a department for the education of teachers; and soon afterwards the sum of $28,000 added to the Literature Fund from the avails of the U. S. Deposite Fund, while eight additional academies were required to organize and maintain similar departments; that, finally, the number of these departments was augmented to twenty-three, and every exertion put forth to secure the great results originally contemplated in their establishment; and that in the judgment of successive superintendents of common schools, the Regents of the University and the most eminent and practical friends of education throughout the state, these institutions, whether considered in the aggregate or with reference to those specially designated, from time to time, for the performance of this important duty, of supplying the common schools with competent teachers, have not succeeded in the accomplishment of that object. Having, therefore, to revert again to the language of the superintendent before referred to, 'proved inadequate to the ends proposed,' may not now '*a change of plan* be insisted on without being open to the objection of abandoning a system which has not been fairly tested?' And have the academies any just reason to complain, if they are not longer permitted to enjoy undiminished the liberal appropriations conferred upon them by the State *for a specific object;* an object which they have not been able satisfactorily to accomplish?"

This committee having satisfied themselves that all former legislation on this subject was inadequate, and having examined, by a sub-committee, the Normal Schools of Massachusetts, and inquired into their operation in other countries, recommended the establishment of a Normal School at Albany, "for the education and training of teachers for common schools," and that the sum of $9,600 for the first year, and $10,000 annually for five years thereafter, in appropriations for its support. This recommendation was adopted by an almost unanimous vote.

This institution is required to be located in the county of Albany; and is to be under the supervision, management and direction of the Superintendent of Common Schools and the Regents of the University, who are authorized and required "from time to time to make all needful rules and regulations; to fix the number and compensation of teachers and others to be employed therein; to prescribe the preliminary examination, and the terms and conditions on which pupils shall be received and instructed therein—the number of pupils from the respective cities and counties, conforming as nearly as may be to the ratio of population—to fix the location of the said school, and the terms and conditions on which the grounds and buildings therefor shall be rented, if the same shall not be provided by the corporation of the city of Albany; and to provide in all things for the good government and management of the said school." They are required to appoint a board, consisting of five persons, including the Superintendent of Common Schools, who are to constitute an executive committee for the care, management and government of the school, under the rules prescribed by the Board of Regents. Such executive committee, are to make full and detailed reports from time to time to the Superintendent and Regents, and among other things to recommend such rules and regulations as they may deem proper for said schools.

The superintendent and Regents are required annually to transmit to the Legislature an account of their proceedings and expenditures, together with a detailed report from the executive committee, relating to the progress, condition, and prospects of the school.

The city of Albany tendered the use of a suitable building, free of rent, for the use of the institution, and the school was organized and commenced the business of instruction in December, 1844, under the charge of David P. Page, Esq., of Newburyport, Mass., as Principal.

The following members composed the Executive Committee, under which the institution was organized: Hon. *Samuel Young*, State Superintendent, Rev. *Alonzo Potter*, D. D., Rev. *Wm. H. Campbell*, *Gideon Hawley* and *Francis Dwight*, Esqrs.

The following account of the State Normal School is copied from the ANNUAL CIRCULAR of the Executive Committee, for 1847.

"The Normal School for the State of New York, was established by an act of the Legislature in 1844, 'for the instruction and practice of Teachers of Common Schools, in the science of Education, and in the art of Teaching.' Its sole object is to improve the teachers of Common Schools; and the course of study and conditions of admission have been adopted with reference to that object.

Each county in the State is entitled to send to the School a number of pupils, (either male or female,) equal to twice the number of members of the Assembly in such county. The pupils are appointed by the county and town superintendents at a meeting called by the county superintendent for that purpose. This meeting should be held and the appointment made at least two weeks before the commencement of each term, or as soon as information is received as to the number of vacancies. A list of the vacancies for each term will be published in the District School Journal, as early as the number of such vacancies can be ascertained,—usually before the close of the former term.

Pupils once admitted to the school will have the right to remain until they graduate; unless they forfeit that right by voluntarily vacating their place, or by improper conduct.

COURSE OF STUDY. The following is the course of study for the school; and a thorough acquaintance with the whole of it, on the part of the male pupils, is made a condition for graduating:

1. Orthography, *Normal Chart.* 2. Analysis of Derivative Words, *Town's.* 3. Reading and Elocution. 4. Writing, *National W. Book.* Geography and Outline Maps, (with map drawing.) *Mitchell's.* 5. English Grammar, (with Composition,) *Brown's.* 6. History of United States, *Wilson's.* 7. Human Physiology, *Lee's.* 8. Mental Arithmetic, *Colburn's.* 9. Elementary Arithmetic, *Perkins'.* 10. Higher Arithmetic, *Perkins'.* 11. Elementary Algebra, *Perkins'.* 12. Higher Algebra, Chaps. VII. and VIII. (omitting Multinomial Theorem and Recurring Series,) *Perkins'.* 13. Geometry, Six Books, *Davies' Legendre.* 14. Plane Trigonometry, as contained in *Davies' Legendre.* 15. Land Surveying, *Davies'.* 16. Natural Philosophy, *Olmstead's.* 17. Chemistry, (with experimental lectures,) *Gray's.* 18. Intellectual Philosophy, *Abercrombie's.* 19. Moral Philosophy, *Lectures.* 20. Constitutional Law, with select parts of the Statutes of this State, most intimately connected with the rights and duties of citizens, *Young's Science of Government; Revised Statutes.* 21. Rhetoric, *Lectures.* 22. Theory and Practice of Teaching, *Lectures and Experimental School.* 23. Mathematical Geography, Use of Globes, and Elements of Astronomy, *Lectures.* 24. Lessons in Drawing and Vocal Music, to be given to all.

The same course of study, omitting the Higher Algebra, Plane Trigonometry and Surveying, must be attained by females as a condition of graduating.

N. B. Any of the pupils who desire further to pursue mathematics, can be allowed to do so after completing the above course of study.

QUALIFICATION OF APPLICANTS. Females sent to the school must be sixteen years of age, and males eighteen.

The superintendents, in making their appointments, are urged to pay no regard to the political opinions of applicants. The selections should be made with reference to the *moral worth* and abilities of the candidates. Decided preference ought to be given to those, who, in the judgment of the superintendents, give the highest promise of becoming the most efficient teachers of common schools. It is also desirable that those only

should be appointed who have already a good knowledge of the common branches of study, and *who intend to remain in the school until they graduate.*

ENTRANCE. All the pupils, on entering the school, are required to sign the following declaration:

'*We the subscribers hereby* DECLARE, *that it is our intention to devote ourselves to the business of teaching district schools, and that our sole object in resorting to this Normal School is the better to prepare ourselves for that important duty.*'

As this should be signed in good faith on the part of the pupils, they should be made acquainted with its import before they are appointed. It is expected of the superintendents, that they shall select such as will sacredly fulfill their engagements in this particular.

Pupils on entering the school are subjected to a thorough examination, and are classified according to their previous attainments. The time required to accomplish the course will depend upon the attainments and talents of the pupil, varying from *one* to *four* terms. *Very few*, however, can expect to graduate in one term.

PRIVILEGES OF THE PUPILS. All pupils receive their tuition free. They are also furnished with the use of text-books without charge; though if they already own the books of the course, they would do well to bring them, together with such other books for reference as they may possess. Moreover, they draw a small sum from the fund for the support of the school, to defray in part their expenses.

It is proposed to apportion the sum of $1,700 among the 256 pupils, who may compose the school during the next term. 1. Each pupil shall receive three cents a mile on the distance from his county town to the city of Albany. 2. The remainder of the $1,700 shall then be divided equally among the students in attendance.

The following list will show how much a student of each county will receive, during the ensuing term:

Albany, $2.41; Allegany, $10.09; Broome, $6.76; Cattaraugus, $11.17; Cayuga, $7.09; Chautauque, $12.49; Chemung, $8.35; Chenango, $5.41; Clinton, $7.27; Columbia, $3.28; Cortland, $6.67; Delaware, $4.72; Dutchess, $4.66; Erie, $10.93; Essex, $6.19; Franklin, $8.77; Fulton, $3.76; Genesee, $9.73; Greene, $3.43; Hamilton, $4.87; Herkimer, $4.81; Jefferson, $7.21; Kings, $6.97; Lewis, $6.28; Livingston, $9.19; Madison, $5.44; Monroe, $8.98; Montgomery, $3,61; New-York, $6.85; Niagara, $10.72; Oneida, $5.29; Onondaga, $6.40; Ontario, $8.26; Orange, $5.44; Orleans, $10.12; Oswego, $7.21; Otsego, $4.39; Putnam, $5.59; Queens, $7.63; Rensselaer, $2.59; Richmond, $7.32; Rockland, $6.07; Saratoga, $4.78; Schenectady, $2.86; Schoharie, $3.07; Seneca, $7.54; St. Lawrence, $8.59; Steuben, $8.89; Suffolk, $9.16; Sullivan, $5.80; Tioga, $7.42; Tompkins, $7.31; Ulster, $4.15; Warren, $4.27; Washington, $3.85; Wayne, $7.84; Westchester, $6.46; Wyoming, $9.85; Yates, $7.96.

It is proper to state, that if the number of pupils is less than 256, the sum to be received will be proportionately increased. The above schedule shows, therefore, the minimum sum to be received by each pupil. His apportionment cannot be less than as above stated, and it may be more.

This money will be paid at the *close of the term.*

APPARATUS. A well assorted apparatus has been procured, sufficiently extensive to illustrate all the important principles in Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, and Human Physiology. Extraordinary facilities for the study of Physiology are afforded by the Museum of the Medical College, which is open at all hours for visiters.

Library. Besides an abundant supply of text-books upon all the branches of the course of study, a well selected miscellaneous library has been procured, to which all the pupils may have access free of charge. In the selection of this library, particular care has been exercised to procure most of the recent works upon Education, as well as several valuable standard works upon the Natural Sciences, History, Mathematics, &c. The State library is also freely accessible to all.

Terms and Vacations. The year is divided into two terms, so as to bring the vacations into April and October, the months for holding the Teachers' Institutes. This also enables the pupils to take advantage of the cheapness of traveling by the various means of water communication in the State, in going to and from the school.

The Summer Term commences on the first Monday in May, and continues twenty weeks, with an intermission of one week from the first of July.

The Winter Term commences on the first Monday in November, and continues twenty-two weeks, with an intermission from Christmas to New Year's day inclusive.

Prompt Attendance. As the school will open on Monday, it would be for the advantage of the pupils, if they should reach Albany by the Thursday or Friday preceding the day of opening. The Faculty can then aid them im securing suitable places for boarding.

As the examinations of the pupils preparatory for classification will commence on the first day of the term, it is exceedingly important that all the pupils should report themselves on the first morning. Those who arrive a day after the time, will subject not only the teachers to much trouble, but themselves also to the rigors of a private examination. After the first week, no student, except for the strongest reasons, shall be allowed to enter the school.

Price of Board. The price of board in respectable families, varies from $1.50 to $2.00, exclusive of washing. Young gentlemen by taking a room and boarding themselves, have sustained themselves at a lower rate. This can better be done in the summer term.

The ladies and gentlemen are not allowed to board in the same families. Particular care is taken to be assured of the respectability of the families who propose to take boarders, before they are recommended to the pupils.

Experimental School. Two spacious rooms in the building are appropriated to the accommodation of the two departments of this school. These two departments are under the immediate supervision of the Permanent Teacher, who is a graduate of the Normal School.

The object of this school is to afford each Normal Pupil an opportunity of practising the methods of instruction and discipline inculcated at the Normal School, as well as to ascertain his 'aptness to teach,' and to discharge the various other duties pertaining to the teacher's responsible office. Each member of the graduating class is required to spend at least two weeks in this department

In the experimental School there are ninety-three pupils between the ages of six and sixteen years. Fifty-eight of these are free pupils. The free seats will be hereafter given exclusively to fatherless children, residing in the city of Albany. This is in consideration of an appropriation by the city to defray in part the expense of fitting up one of the rooms of the school. The remaining thirty-five pupils are charged $20 per year for tuition and use of books. This charge is made merely to defray the expense of sustaining the school."

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AN ACT

RELATING TO PUBLIC SCHOOLS,

PASSED JUNE 27, 1845; AND THE ACTS IN ADDITION THERETO, WITH REMARKS AND FORMS.

It is enacted by the General Assembly as follows:

I. State Appropriation and Supervision. Section I—III.

Section 1. For the uniform and efficient administration of this Act, and the supervision and improvement of such schools as may be supported in any manner out of appropriations from the General Treasury, the Governor shall appoint an officer, to be called the Commissioner of Public Schools, who shall hold his office one year, and until his successor shall be appointed, with such compensation for his services, and allowance for his expenses, as the General Assembly shall determine.

[By act of June 1846, § 5, in case of the sickness or absence of the Commissioner, the Governor may appoint a person to act as Commissioner during his absence or sickness.]

Sec. II. For the encouragement and maintenance of public schools in the several towns and cities of the State in the manner hereinafter prescribed, the sum of twenty-five thousand dollars is hereby annually appropriated, payable out of the annual avails of the School Fund, and of the money deposited with this State by the United States, and other moneys not otherwise specially appropriated; and the General Treasurer is authorized and directed to pay all orders drawn by the Commissioner of Public Schools in pursuance of the provisions of this act, or of resolutions of the General Assembly: *Provided*, the aggregate amount of such orders in any one year shall not exceed the sum of twenty-five thousand dollars.

Sec. III. The Commissioner of Public Schools is authorized and it is made his duty—

¶ 1 To apportion annually, in the month of May, the money appropriated to public schools, among the several towns of the State, in proportion to the number of children under the age of fifteen years, according to the census taken under the authority of the United States, next preceding the time of making such apportionment.

¶ 2. To draw all orders on the General Treasurer, for the payment of such apportionment in favor of the treasurer of such towns as shall comply with the terms of this act, on or before the 1st of July annually.

[See § 4, ¶ 3—§ 5, ¶ 13.]

¶ 3. To prepare suitable forms and regulations for making all reports, and conducting all necessary proceedings under this act, and to transmit the same, with such instructions as he shall deem necessary and proper for the uniform and thorough administration of the school system, to the Town Clerk of each town, for distribution among the officers required to execute them.

¶ 4. To adjust and decide, without appeal and without cost to the parties, all controversies and disputes arising under this act, which may be submitted to him for settlement and decision; the facts of which cases shall be stated in writing, verified by oath or affirmation if required, and accompanied by certified copies of all necessary minutes, contracts, orders and other documents.

[See § 27.]

¶ 5. To visit as often and as far as practicable, every school district in the State, for the purpose of inspecting the schools, and diffusing as widely as possible by public addresses, and personal communication with school officers, teachers and parents, a knowledge of existing defects, and desirable improvements in the administration of the system, and the government and instruction of the schools.

¶ 6. To recommend the best text books, and secure, as far as practicable a uniformity, in the schools of at least every town, and to assist, when called upon, in the establishment of, and the selection of books for school libraries.

[See § 5, ¶ 9—§ 14, ¶ 5.]

¶ 7. To establish Teachers' Institutes, and one thoroughly organized Normal School in the State, where teachers, and such as propose to teach, may become acquainted with the most approved and successful methods of arranging the studies, and conducting the discipline and instruction of public schools.

¶ 8. To appoint such and so many inspectors in each county, as he shall, from time to time, deem necessary, to examine all persons offering themselves as candidates for teaching public schools, and to visit, inspect, and report, concerning the public schools, under such instructions as said Commissioner may prescribe; *Provided*, that as far as practicable such inspectors shall be experienced teachers, and shall serve without any allowance or compensation from the General Treasury.

[See § 20, ¶ 2 and proviso.]

¶ 9. To grant certificates of qualification to such teachers as have been approved by one or more county inspectors, and shall give satisfactory evidence of their moral character, attainments, and ability to govern and instruct children.

[See § 20, ¶ 2 and proviso.]

¶ 10. To enter, or cause to be entered, in proper books to be provided

for the purpose in his office, all decisions, letters, orders on the Treasurer, and other acts as Commissioner of Public Schools; and to submit to the General Assembly at the October session, an annual printed report, containing, together with an account of his own doings,—

First,—A statement of the condition of the public schools, and the means of popular education generally in the State;

Second,—Plans and suggestions for their improvement;

Third,—Such other matters relating to the duties of his office, as he may deem useful and proper to communicate.

II. Powers and Duties of Towns. Section IV—IX.

Sec. IV. To provide for the education of all the children residing within their respective limits, the several towns and cities of the state are empowered and it shall be their duty—

¶ 1. To lay off their respective territory into primary school districts, and to alter or abolish the same when necessary; *Provided*, that unless with the approbation of the Commissioner of Public Schools, no new district shall be formed with less than forty children, over four and under sixteen years of age; and that no existing district, by the formation of a new one, shall be reduced below the same number of like persons; And that no village or populous district shall be subdivided into two or more districts for the purpose of maintaining a school in each under one teacher, when two or more schools of different grades for the younger and older children, can be conveniently established in said district; or

[By act of June 1846, § 1, the school districts as established at the passage of the new school law, are recognized as such, and all alterations hereafter are to be made by the school committees subject to the foregoing provisos.]

¶ 2. To establish and maintain, (without forming, or recognizing when formed, districts as above,) a sufficient number of public schools of different grades, at convenient locations, under the entire management and regulation of the school committee hereinafter provided.

[See § 6, and § 17.]

¶ 3. To raise by tax at the annual meeting, or at any regular meeting called for the purpose, such sums of money for the support of public schools, as they shall judge necessary, which tax shall be voted, assessed and collected as other town taxes; *Provided*, that a sum equal to one third of the amount received from the General Treasury for the support of public schools for the year next preceding, shall be raised, before any town shall be entitled to receive its proportion of the annual State appropriation.

[See § 3, ¶ 2. The money must be voted on or before the 1st of July, annually.]

¶ 4. To elect by ballot or otherwise, at the annual town meeting, or at a meeting of the town previously designated for this purpose, a school committee, to consist of three, six, nine or twelve persons resident in such town, as the town shall determine at the first meeting held for the choice of said committee after the passage of this act.

[By the Constitution, Art. 9, § 1, the school committee are not required to be qualified electors; and by the Digest, page 302, § 6, all town officers hold until their successors are qualified to act. By Digest, page 302, § 5, if any town, at its annual meeting, fails to elect any of the officers they may lawfully choose, (with certain exceptions,) the town council may choose them at its next meeting: and any town may vote to delegate the election of them to the town councils.]

SEC. V. The School committees of the several towns, when qualified by oath or affirmation to the faithful discharge of their duties, are authorized and it shall be their duty—

[By Art. 9, § 1, of Constitution, the office of school committee is spoken of as a civil office. And by Art. 9, § 4, all civil officers are required to take an engagement to support the constitutions of the State and of the United States. See form of the oath in Digest p. 305, § 22. Justices of the Peace or Wardens, (in those towns which elect Wardens,) and Public Notaries are authorized to administer oaths and affirmations. See Digest, page 104, § 5—page 108, § 23, and page 88, § 2. And as the school committee, being town officers, hold until their successors are qualified, the chairman or clerk, as provided below, can administer the oath or affirmation to their successors until a majority of their successors are qualified.]

¶ 1. To elect a chairman, and in his absence or inability to serve, a chairman *pro tem.*, who shall preside in all meetings, and sign all orders and official papers of the committee; and a clerk, who shall keep minutes of their votes and proceedings, in a book provided for that purpose, and have the custody of all papers and documents belonging to the committee; and either chairman or clerk when qualified may administer the oath or affirmation required of said other members of the school committee, and of trustees of school districts.

[See preceeding note. Also, act relating to oaths, passed October 1846.]

¶ 2. To hold at least four stated meetings, viz., on the 2d Monday of January, April, July, and October, in each year, and as often as the circumstances of the schools require; and a majority of the whole number chosen, shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business, but any less number may adjourn to any time and place.

¶ 3. To form, alter, and discontinue school districts, and to settle the boundaries between them when undefined or in dispute, subject to the direction or concurrence of the town, or the Commissioner of Public Schools.

[By the act of June 1846, the formation and alteration of school districts is left exclusively with the school committee, subject only to the provisos of § 4, ¶ 1, of this act, and to the appeal provided for by § 27.]

¶ 4. To locate all school-houses, and not to abandon or change the site of any without good cause.

¶ 5. To examine by the whole board, or a sub-committee appointed for that purpose, all candidates as teachers in the public schools of the town, and give to such as may be found qualified, in respect to moral character, literary attainments, and ability to govern and instruct children, a certificate signed by the chairman, which shall be valid for one year, or until annulled.

[As to the qualifications, see § 20, ¶ 2, proviso. The certificate may be signed by the chairman of the school committee or by the sub-committee. See § 20, ¶ 1.]

¶ 6. To annul the certificates of such teachers as shall prove, on trial, unqualified, or who will not conform to the regulations adopted by the committee.

¶ 7. To visit, by one or more of their number, every public school in town, at least twice during each term of schooling, once within two weeks after the opening, and again within two weeks preceding the close of the school, at which visits, they shall examine the register of the teacher, and other matters touching the school-house, library, studies, discipline, modes of teaching, and the improvement of the schools.

[As to supervision of joint districts see § 19, ¶ 3.]

¶ 8. To suspend during pleasure, or expel during the current school

year, all pupils found guilty, on full hearing, of incorrigibly bad conduct, and re-admit the same, on satisfactory evidence of amendment.

[As a part of the regulations of the school committee relating to *discipline* provided for by the next paragraph, the power of *temporary* suspension can be delegated to the teachers or trustees, until a full hearing can be had before the committee.]

¶ 9. To prescribe, and cause to be put up in each school-house, or furnished to each teacher, a general system of rules and regulations, for the admission and attendance of pupils, the classification, studies, books, discipline and methods of instruction, in the public schools.

¶ 10. To fill any vacancy in their own committee, or in the trustees of school districts, occasioned by death, resignation, or otherwise, by an appointment, to continue till the next succeeding annual election, and no longer, at which time such vacancies shall be filled by the town or district respectively.

¶ 11. To apportion, as early as practicable in each year, among the several school districts, in case the public schools are maintained through their organization, the money received from the State, one half equally, and the other half according to the average daily attendance in the public schools of each district, during the year next preceding, which money shall be designated as "teachers' money," and shall be applied to the wages of teachers, and for no other purpose whatever; and further to apportion any other money, either raised by tax over the sum received from the State, or derived from the registry tax or funds, grants, or other sources of revenue appropriated to public schools, in such manner as the town may determine.

[Daily attendance can be ascertained by the register provided for by § 21. As to penalty for misapplication of School money, see § 25.]

¶ 12. To draw an order on the treasurer of the town in favor of such districts, and such districts only, as shall have made a return to them in matter and form required by said committee, or by the Commissioner of Public Schools, from which it shall appear, among other things, that for the year ending the 1st of May previous, one or more public schools had been kept for at least four months by a teacher properly qualified, and in a school-house approved by the committee, and that the money designated "teachers' money," received from the treasurer of the town for the year previous, had been applied to the wages of teachers, and for no other purpose whatever.

[As to money for secondary schools see § 18, ¶ 2. In case of children attending schools in other towns or districts see § 24. In case there are no districts see § 6. For signing orders, see ¶ 1, and § 9.]

¶ 13. To prepare and submit annually, *First*, a return to the Commissioner of Public Schools, on or before the 1st of July, in matter and form as shall be prescribed by him; and *Second*, a written or printed report to the town, at the annual town meeting when the school committee is chosen, setting forth the doings of the committee, and the condition and plans for the improvement of the public schools of their respective towns; which report, unless printed, shall be read in open town meeting.

SEC. VI. Whenever a town is not divided into school districts, or shall vote in a meeting duly warned for that purpose, to provide public schools of different grades without reference to such division, the school committee of said town shall perform all the duties devolved by this act on

the trustees of school districts, and pay all necessary expenses of the system, by drafts on the treasurer of the town.

[See § 4 ¶ 2, and § 17.]

Sec. VII. Any town may establish and maintain a public school library for the use of the inhabitants generally of the town, and such library may be kept together at some convenient place, or be distributed into several parts, and transferred from time to time for the convenience of different districts or neighborhoods, under such rules and regulations as the town may adopt.

Sec. VIII. The town clerk of every town shall keep a record of all votes and proceedings of the town relating to public schools, in a book provided for that purpose; shall receive and keep all school reports and documents addressed to the town, and receive such communications as may be forwarded by the Commissioner of Public Schools, and dispose of the same in the manner directed by him.

Sec. IX. The treasurer of each town respectively shall apply to the General Treasurer, and receive all monies to which the town may be entitled under the apportionment and order of the Commissioner of Public Schools; shall keep a separate account of all monies thus received, or appropriated by the town; shall give notice to the school committee, within one week after the regular annual town meeting, of the amount of monies remaining in his hand, at the time, or subject to the order of said committee, specifying the sources from whence derived; and shall pay out said money from time to time, to the orders of the school committee, signed by the chairman.

III. School Districts. Section X. XIX.

Sec. X. Every regularly constituted school district shall be numbered, and its limits defined by the town, or the school committee of the town, which number and limits, and any alteration thereof, shall be entered on the records of the clerk of the town, and the records of the district.

[See act of June 1846, § 1.]

Sec. XI. When any two or more districts shall be consolidated into one, the new district shall own all the corporate property of the several districts; and when a district shall be divided, or a portion set off to another district, the funds, property, or the income and proceeds thereof, belonging to such district, shall be distributed or adjusted among the several parts, by the school committee of the town or towns to which such district belongs, in a just and equitable manner.

Sec. XII. ¶ 1. Notice of the time, place, and object of holding the first meeting of any district, shall be given by the committee of the town to which such district belongs.

¶ 2. Every school district shall hold an annual meeting in the month of May in each year, for the choice of officers, and the transaction of any other business relating to schools in said district, and shall also hold a special meeting whenever the same shall be duly called.

[By act of June 1846, § 2, the annual meeting may be held in April or May. The first meeting for organizing a district may be held at any time in any month after legal notice, but after they are organized the annual meetings must be held as be-

fore mentioned. It was not supposed that the districts would all organize at once, nor was it intended to limit the time. If they do not organize, the committee may keep the school. See act of June 1846, § 3.]

¶ 3. The trustees may call a special meeting whenever they shall think it necessary or proper, and shall call a special meeting on the written request of five residents in the district qualified to vote, which request shall state the object of calling the same.

¶ 4. District meetings shall be held at the district school-house. If there be no school-house, the trustees shall determine the place of meeting. If there be no trustees, the committee of the town to which such district belongs, shall determine the place of meeting, which shall, in all cases, be within the limits of the district.

¶ 5. Notice of the time and place of every annual meeting, and of the time, place, and object of every special meeting of the district, shall be given at least five days inclusive, previous to holding the same.

¶ 6. The trustees, or if there be no trustees, then the committee of the town, shall give the notice of a district meeting, either by publishing the same in a newspaper printed in the district, or by putting the notice on the district school house, or on a sign-post within the district, or in some other mode previously designated by the district; but if there be no such newspaper, school house, or sign-post, or other mode so designated, then the committee of the town to which such district belongs, shall determine how and where the notice shall be given.

¶ 7. Every person residing in the district may vote in district meetings, to the same extent, and with the same restrictions, as he may at the time be qualified to vote in town meeting.

[As to who may vote for taxes see Constitution, Art. 2, § 2.]

¶ 8. Every district meeting may appoint a moderator, and adjourn from time to time.

Sec. XIII. Every school district shall be a body corporate, and shall have power—

¶ 1. To prosecute and defend in all actions relating to the property and affairs of the district.

¶ 2. To purchase, receive, hold and convey any real or personal property for school purposes.

¶ 3. To build, purchase, hire and repair school houses, and supply the same with black-boards, maps, furniture, and other necessary and useful appendages; *Provided*, that the erection and repairs of the district school house shall be made according to plans and specifications approved by the school committee of the town, or the Commissioner of Public Schools.

¶ 4. To establish and maintain a school library.

¶ 5. To employ one or more teachers.

¶ 6. To raise money by tax on the rateable estates of the district, for school purposes; and to fix a rate of tuition to be paid by the parents, employer or guardian of each child attending school, towards the expense of fuel, books, and other estimated expenses of the school, over and above the sum accruing to the district from the state and town appropriations; *Provided*, that the rate of tuition, for any one term of three months, shall not exceed one dollar per scholar; *and provided further*, that the amount of such tax and the rate of tuition, shall be approved and authorized by the school committee of the town.

[By § 14, ¶ 6, the trustee or trustees must make out the tax bills. As to mode of assessing see § 15. As to mode of collection see § 13, ¶ 8.]

¶ 7. To elect at the annual meeting, by ballot or otherwise, one person, resident in the district, to serve as trustee for the district, and to hold his office for three years; *Provided*, that the first election after the passage of this act, three persons shall be thus elected, one of whom shall serve one, a second, two, and the third, three years, to be determined by lot among themselves; *and provided further*, that any new district may choose three trustees as above, at the first meeting called after its formation, and the term of office of the one designated by lot to serve one year, shall expire at the next annual meeting of the school districts.

[By act of June 1846, the districts at their meetings for organization, or at their annual meetings, may elect either one or three trustees, (as they may decide,) to hold their offices until the next annual meeting, or until their successors are qualified.]

8. To appoint a clerk, collector and treasurer of the district, who shall exercise the same powers and duties in their respective districts, as the clerk, treasurer and collector of the town, in their respective towns.

Sec. XIV. The trustees of every school district, when qualified to the faithful discharge of the duties of their office, are authorized, and it shall be their duty—

[The oath or affirmation may be administered by the chairman or clerk of the school committee, a Justice or Notary, or in Jamestown and New Shoreham by a Warden. See § 5, ¶ 1, and note. Also, act of October 1846, § 1.]

¶ 1. To have the custody of the school houses and other property of the district.

¶ 2. To give notice of all meetings of the districts in the manner provided.

[As to notice see § 12.]

¶ 3. To employ at their discretion, one or more qualified teachers, for every fifty scholars in average daily attendance, provide school rooms, and furnish the same with fuel, properly prepared.

[As to qualification of teachers see § 20.]

¶ 4. To visit the schools by one or more of their number, twice at least during each term of schooling.

¶ 5. To see that the scholars are properly supplied with books, and in case they are not, and the parents, guardians or masters, have been notified thereof by the teacher, to provide the same at the expense of the district, and add the price thereof to the next school tax or rate bill of said parents.

[As to what books shall be used see § 3, ¶ 6, and § 5 ¶ 9.]

¶ 6 To make out the tax and rate bills for tuition, against the persons liable to pay the same, as shall be voted by the district.

¶ 7. To make such returns to the school committee in matter and form, as shall be prescribed by them, or the Commissioner of Public Schools, and perform all other lawful acts that may be required of them by the district, or which may be necessary to carry into full effect the powers and duties of schoool districts.

Sec. XV. ¶ 1. Whenever a tax shall be voted by any district, the same shall be levied on the ratable estate in said district, according to the estimate and apportionment in the tax bill of the town to which such district belongs, last completed, or next to be completed, as said district may direct.

¶ 2. Whenever any real estate situated within the district is so assessed and entered in the tax bill of the town, in common with other estate sit-

uated out of said district, that there is no distinct or separate value upon it, the trustees of the district may call upon one or more of the assessors of the town, not residing in said district; and it shall be the duty of said assessors on such application, to assess the value of said real estate so situated, and in making such assessment, to proceed as in making the tax bill of the town.

[As to notice and other particulars see Digest page 425.]

Sec. XVI. If any school district shall neglect or refuse to establish a school and employ a teacher for the same, for nine months, the school committee of the town may establish such school, and employ a teacher, as the trustees of the district might have done; and any school district may, with the consent of the school committee, devolve all the powers and duties relating to public schools in said district, on said committee.

[By act of June 1846, § 3, if any district neglects to organize, or, if organized, shall for the space of six months neglect or refuse to establish a school and employ a teacher, the school committee of the town may either by themselves or by an agent by them appointed establish a school and employ a teacher.]

Sec. XVII. Any town, at any legal meeting, may vote to provide school-houses, furnish the same with fixtures and necessary and useful appendages, in all the districts, from time to time, at the common expense of the town.

[See § 4, ¶ 2, and § 6.]

Sec. XVIII. ¶ 1. Any two or more adjoining primary school districts in the same or adjoining towns, may by a concurrent vote, agree to establish a secondary or grammar school, for the older and more advanced children of such districts, under the management of a committee, composed of one member from each of said districts, to be appointed annually for each district, by the school committee of the town, or towns to which such districts belong respectively; and said secondary school committee shall locate the school, provide school house, fuel and furniture, employ teachers, regulate the studies, the terms of admission, the number of pupils to be admitted, the rate of tuition, and have the general control of the school; *Provided*, that no teacher shall be employed in any secondary school, without exhibiting a certificate of qualification, signed by a school inspector for the county, or the Commissioner of Public Schools.

¶ 2. The school committee of the town or towns in which such secondary school shall be established, shall draw an order in favor of the committee of said school, to be paid out of the public money appropriated to each district interested in said secondary school, in proportion to the number of scholars from each.

Sec. XIX. ¶ 1. Whenever it shall be found convenient to form a school district of two or more contiguous districts, or parts of two or more contiguous districts in adjoining towns, such towns respectively concurring therein, may form such district, and alter and discontinue the same.

[By act of June 1846, the concurrence of the towns is rendered unnecessary.]

¶ 2. The first meeting of any district composed of parts of two or more towns, shall be called by a notice signed by the school committees of the several towns to which such parts belong, and set up in one or more public places, in each town within the limits of the joint district; and said district may, from time to time thereafter, prescribe the mode of

calling and warning the meetings, in like manner as other school districts may do.

¶ 3. Every district established by two or more towns, shall have all the powers, and perform all the duties allowed or prescribed in regard to school districts, and shall be subject to the supervision and general management of the school committee of the town in which the school of the joint district may be kept, or the school-house, when erected, may stand.

¶ 4. Whenever a joint district shall vote to build or repair a school-house by tax, the amount of such tax, and the plan and specification of such building or repairs shall be approved by the school committee of the towns out of which said district is formed.

IV. Teachers. Section XX–I.

Sec. XX. No person shall be employed to teach as principal or assistant, in any school supported in part, or entirely, by public money, unless such person shall exhibit a certificate of qualification, signed either—

¶ 1. By the chairman of the school committee of any town, or the sub-committee appointed for this purpose, which shall be valid for one year from the date thereof, in any public school or district in said town, unless annulled; or,

¶ 2. By an inspector for the county, which shall be valid for two years from the date thereof, in every town and district of the county for which such inspector shall be appointed, which last certificate, when signed by the Commissioner of Public Schools, shall be valid in any public school of the State, for three years, unless the same is annulled.

Provided, That neither of the above authorities shall sign any certificate of qualification, unless the person named in the same shall produce evidence of good moral character, and be found on examination, or by experience, qualified to teach the English language, arithmetic, penmanship, and the rudiments of geography and history, and to govern a school.

Sec. XXI. Every teacher in any public school, shall keep a register of all the scholars attending said school, their ages, their parents or guardians, the date when each scholar entered and left said school, and their daily attendance, together with the day of the month on which said school was visited by any of the authorities named in this act, with the names of the visitors.

MISCELLANEOUS PROVISIONS.

Sec. XXII. The General Treasurer shall pay to the treasurer of the town of Charlestown, the sum of one hundred dollars annually, to be expended under the direction of some suitable person or persons to be appointed annually by the Governor, in support of a school for the use of the members of the Narragansett tribe of Indians, and for the purchase of books and other incidental expenses of said school; and an account of the expenditure of said money shall be rendered annually to the General Assembly, and a report of the condition of the school be transmitted to the Commissioner of Public Schools, on or before the first Monday of May; *Provided*, that in the apportionment of the public money, by the said Commissioner, and by the school committee of the town of

Charlestown, the number of the Narragansett Indians in such town shall not be included.

SEC. XXIII. No child shall be excluded from any public school in the district to which such child belongs, if the town is divided into districts; and if not so divided, from the nearest public school, except by force of some general regulation, applicable to all children under the same circumstances; and in no case, on account of the inability of the parent, guardian, or employer of the same, to pay his or her tax, rate, or assessment, for any school purpose whatever.

[See § 5, ¶ 9.]

SEC. XXIV. The school committee of any town, or the trustees of any school district, are authorized to make arrangements with the committee of any adjacent town, or the trustees of any adjacent district, for the attendance of such children, as will be better accommodated in the public schools of such adjacent town or district, as the case may be, and to pay such a portion of the expense of said schools, as may have been agreed upon, or as may be just and proper.

SEC. XXV. Any money appropriated to the use of public schools, which shall be applied by a town, school district, or any officer thereof, to any other purpose than that specified by the law, shall be forfeited to the state; and any officer or person who shall fraudulently make a false certificate or order, by which any money appropriated to public schools shall be drawn from the treasury of the State, or the town, shall forfeit the sum of fifty dollars to the State; and it shall be the duty of the Commissioner of Public Schools to bring a suit to recover said forfeitures in behalf of the State.

SEC. XXVI. In the construction of this act, the word "town" shall include the city of Providence, so far only as to entitle the same to a distributive share of the money appropriated to the support of public schools, on making the annual report required of the several school committees, in matter and form as prescribed by the Commissioner of Public Schools.

SEC. XXVII. Any person conceiving himself aggrieved in consequence of any decision made by any school district meeting, or by the trustees of any district, or the committee of any town, or by a county inspector, or concerning any other matter arising under this Act, may appeal to the Commissioner of Public Schools, who is hereby authorized and required to examine and decide the same: and the decision of said Commissioner, when approved by any Judge of the Supreme Court, shall be final and conclusive.

[See § 3, ¶ 4.]

SEC. XXVIII. All general acts and resolutions heretofore passed relating to public schools, and all acts authorizing particular towns and districts to build school houses, and perform other duties now provided for in the preceding sections, are hereby repealed.

Provided, That all acts and resolutions relating to the public schools in the city of Providence, and the town of Newport, are hereby continued in force.

Provided further, That all rights vested in any person or persons by virtue of any of the acts hereby repealed, shall remain unimpaired and

unaltered by this act; and that all matters commenced by virtue of any of the laws aforesaid, now depending or unfinished, may be prosecuted and pursued to final effect, in the same manner as they might have been, if this act had not been passed.

SEC. XXIX. This act shall not take effect till after the next session of the General Assembly, and in the mean time the existing laws relative to public schools shall continue in force.

Passed, June Session, 1845.

TRUE COPY: *Witness*, HENRY BOWEN, *Sec.*

AN ACT

In addition to, and in amendment of "An Act relating to Public Schools."

It is enacted by the General Assembly as follows:

SECTION I. The limits of the school districts in the several towns shall continue the same as before the passage of said act, until they shall be altered by the school committee of the town; and the formation or alteration of a joint district in adjoining towns shall be left with the school committees of such towns.

[This amends § 4, ¶ 1—§ 5, ¶ 3—§ 10, and § 19, ¶ 1, of the School Law of June 1845.

SEC. II. Any school district may elect, at their meeting for organization, or at their annual meeting in April or May, either one or three trustees, as they may decide, and such trustee or trustees shall hold their offices until the next annual meeting, or until their successors are qualified.

[This amends § 13, ¶ 7, and § 12, ¶ 2, of School Law of June 1845.]

SEC. III. If any school district shall neglect or refuse to organize, or if organized, shall for the space of six months, neglect or refuse to establish a school and employ a teacher for the same, the school committee of the town may by themselves, or an agent by them appointed, establish such school and employ a teacher, as the trustees of the district might have done.

[This amends § 16 of School Law of June 1845.]

SEC. IV. The Commissioner of Public Schools shall furnish to each district school a suitable register, and publish and distribute to each district, an edition of the school law with the alterations above made, and such forms and explanations as may be necessary for the uniform administration of the same; and the expense thereof, when approved by the Governor, shall be paid out of the Treasury.

SEC. V. In case of the absence or sickness of the Commissioner of Public Schools, the Governor is hereby authorized to appoint a suitable person to act as Commissioner during such absence or sickness.

Passed, June Session, 1846.

TRUE COPY: *Witness*,

HENRY BOWEN, *Sec.*

AN ACT *in addition to, and amendment of "An Act relating to Public Schools."*

It is enacted by the General Assembly as follows:

SEC. I. The Moderator and Clerk of a district may, on being elected, administer the necessary engagement each to the other in open meeting; and when so engaged, or if engaged before any other officer in open meeting, the record of the clerk shall be presumptive evidence thereof.

SEC. II. The record of a Clerk, that a meeting has been duly or legally notified, shall be presumptive evidence that it has been notified as the law requires.

SEC. III. Inhabitants of school districts, or persons paying taxes therein, shall be competent witnesses in all civil and criminal cases, notwithstanding their interest as such, if not otherwise disqualified.

SEC. IV. The Clerk, Collector, Treasurer and all trustees of districts shall hold office until their successors are qualified to act.

SEC. V. The school committees shall have the sole power (subject to appeal) of laying off and altering school districts, subject to the proviso of section IV, ¶ 1, of the act of June session, A. D. 1845. Provided, that where there are no districts, the Committee shall not proceed to lay off districts without the direction of the town. All votes of school committees laying off or altering school districts, passed since June session A. D. 1846, not inconsistent with the foregoing provisos and not appealed from, are hereby confirmed.

SEC. VI. A district may authorize its trustees to fix a rate of tuition or assessment instead of fixing it themselves; and either district or trustees shall exempt therefrom such as they may consider unable to pay the same; and the rate-bill therefor shall be collected by the district collector in the same manner as if it was for town taxes.

SEC. VII. Any person committed to jail by the district collector either for a tax or for a rate-bill for tuition or assessments shall be entitled to the benefit of "An act for the relief of poor persons imprisoned for debt," in the same manner as if committed for town taxes. And any person assessed in any rate-bill as aforesaid, may, before commitment, apply to any justice of the peace in the town, out of the district, for a citation to the trustee or trustees to appear at a time and place named, within said district, and show cause why he should not be admitted to take the oath prescribed in said act; said citation shall be served three days before the time appointed upon the trustee, (or upon any one of them if more than one,) and the applicant shall be heard before the Justice signing the citation, and may by him be admitted to take the oath aforesaid; and a certificate thereof, signed by him, shall be a full protection to the applicant against any further proceedings for collecting said rate. And the service of the citation aforesaid shall suspend such proceedings for at least ten days, unless the case be sooner heard and disposed of.

SEC. VIII. All doings of districts and district officers in cases where the latter were not engaged as required by law, shall, nevertheless, be valid, provided they be engaged within thirty days from the passage of this act.

SEC. IX. In dividing for this year, that portion of the State money which is to be divided according to the attendance of last year, the school committee shall have power to make the division to the best of their discretion as near thereto as may be.

SEC. X. Any officer of a district who shall willfully and know-

ingly refuse to perform any duty imposed upon him by any of the acts relating to public schools, or who shall willfully and knowingly violate the provisions of said laws, may be indicted therefor, and on conviction fined not exceeding five hundred dollars, and shall, besides, be liable to suit for any damages any person may suffer thereby.

SEC. XI. When any town shall neglect to direct how the money raised from the town and registry taxes shall be divided, the school committee may divide it.

SEC. XII. When a whole district unites with the whole or part of a district in another town, to form a joint district, according to section XIX. of the act of June, A. D. 1845, it shall be entitled to its full proportion of school money, as if it were not a joint district; and when a part of a district unites to form a joint district, the school committee shall assign to it such portion of the school money as they may deem proper.

SEC. XIII. A school district may organize at any time after the proper notice; and all organizations of school districts made in any other month than that fixed for the annual meeting, and legally notified and otherwise legally held, are hereby confirmed.

SEC. XIV. Section XIII ¶ 5, and so much of section IV, ¶ 4, of the school act of June, 1845, as requires the number of the school committee to be fixed at the first meeting held after the passage of that act, are hereby repealed, and the said number may be fixed at any annual town election.

Passed October Session, 1846.

TRUE COPY: *Witness.* HENRY BOWEN, *Sec.*

AN ACT *in relation to oaths of office.*

It is enacted by the General Assembly as follows:

SEC. 1. Any Judge, Senator, or Town Clerk shall have full power to administer to all State, Town or other officers, civil or military, the engagement required to be taken by them by law.

SEC. II. No proceedings heretofore had, since the Digest of 1844 went into effect, shall be held invalid on account of any such engagement having been taken before any of the officers above named; provided, that this act shall not affect any suit or action already commenced,

Oct. 1846. TRUE COPY: *Witness.* HENRY BOWEN, *Sec.*

AN ACT *to provide for the Education of the Indigent Blind, and the Indigent Deaf Mutes.*

It is enacted by the General Assembly as follows:

SECTION 1. The sum of fifteen hundred dollars is hereby annually appropriated for the education, at "the American Asylum at Hartford, for the instruction of the deaf and dumb," of the indigent deaf mutes of this State; and for the education of the indigent blind of this State, at the institution for education of the blind, located at South Boston.

SEC. 2. Said sum shall be paid out of the General Treasury to the orders of Byron Diman, of Bristol, who is hereby appointed commissioner for the distribution of said appropriation, with full authority to determine which of said persons in this state shall be admitted to the benefit thereof, and the portion which such shall receive: *Provided*, that no one person shall receive any portion thereof for more than five years, nor a greater sum in any one year than one hundred dollars,

Passed January 25, 1845.

AN ACT in addition to an Act in relation to Oaths of Office:—

It is enacted by the General Assembly as follows:

Any clerk of a school district, when qualified to act as such, may administer any affirmation or oath of office required to be taken by any officer of a school district; and any such oath or affirmation heretofore administered by a clerk of a school district shall be held to be valid.

Passed January Session, 1847.

TRUE COPY: *Witness*,
HENRY BOWEN, Sec'y.

Voted and Resolved, That nothing in any of the several acts relating to Public Schools shall be so construed as to require any engagement or oath of office to be taken by any moderator of a school district meeting; and that any clerk of a school district who has not yet taken the necessary engagement, may take the same within sixty days from the passage hereof, with the same effect as if taken immediately after his election.

Passed January Session, 1847.

TRUE COPY: *Witness*,
HENRY BOWEN, Sec'y.

AN ACT in addition to the several acts relating to Public Schools:—

It is enacted by the General Assembly as follows:

SECTION I. Any town may elect a school committee of the number of one for every district in the town, if they so determine. Whenever the number of the school committee consists of more than six persons, four shall constitute a quorum.

SEC. II. The school committee shall have power to employ some person, not of their number, to perform the duty of visiting the schools.

SEC. III. In districts where public schools of different grades are established, the legal voters may fix a rate of tuition for each grade of school, not exceeding one dollar per scholar for the lowest grade, and two dollars for the highest grade, for any term of three months: *Provided*, that the amount of such tax, and the rate of tuition, shall be approved and authorized by the school committee of the town.

SEC. IV. In all cases of forfeiture of school money by any town or district, arising under Sec. 3, par. 2, and Sec. 5, par. 12, of the act relating to public schools, the commissioner of public schools may on application examine into the facts and remit the forfeiture, if he deems it equitable.

Passed General Assembly, June Sesssion, 1847.

TRUE COPY: *Witness*,
HENRY BOWEN, Sec'y.

AN ACT to provide for the voluntary incorporation of Library, Academy, and School Associations:—

Whereas, by the 24th and 25th sections of an act to revise and amend the several acts relating to Public Schools, passed at January session,

A. D. 1839, provision was made for the voluntary incorporation of School and Library Associations, which provisions were inadvertently omitted in the revision of said act in June, A. D. 1845: Therefore,

Be it enacted by the General Assembly as follows:

Section I. Whenever any persons to the number of three or more have associated, or shall hereafter associate together for the purpose of procuring and maintaining a Library, or procuring and supporting an Academy or School-house, they shall, upon complying with the terms of this act, become a body corporate for such purpose by such name as they may designate, and subject to such regulations, conditions, and constitution as they may have adopted. And they may hold, control, and convey real and personal estate to an amount not exceeding five thousand dollars, exclusive of their building and the lot on which it may stand, and of their books, maps, pictures, and library furniture.

Sec. II. In case of any association of any number of members heretofore formed for the purpose of maintaining a Library and not incorporated, any three of the members may call a meeting and appoint a time and place therefor, giving to all the known members resident in this State five days notice thereof, to be served as an original summons is required to be served by law, by some sheriff, deputy-sheriff, constable, or by some disinterested person who shall make oath thereto; and at such meeting so held, a majority of the persons present entitled to vote may organize said association as a corporation under this act.

Sec. III. The Library corporations formed under this act shall have the power to make assessments on shares, and regulate by by-laws the manner of selling them on failure of payment; and all transfers of the shares shall be recorded in the books of the corporation.

Sec. IV. All corporations organized under this act may elect such officers and for such time as they deem proper, may regulate by by-laws the manner of calling annual or other meetings, may require their officers to give bonds, determine the manner of voting and how many shall constitute a quorum, and generally make all necessary by-laws not inconsistent with law or their constitution, and may prescribe suitable penalties for the violation of them, which, if in money, shall not exceed twenty dollars, and may be collected by action of debt in the name of the corporation. All officers shall continue in office until their successors are appointed, and vacancies may be filled at any meeting or in such manner as the corporation may direct. If no mode is provided of calling annual or other meetings, the Clerk or Secretary shall call a meeting on the request of any three members, by posting up a notice thereof for five days in some public place upon the Library building, Academy, or School-house. And a majority of votes either in person or by proxy shall constitute a quorum, unless otherwise provided by the corporation.

Sec. V. To entitle any association to the benefit of this act, the constitution or articles of association, and all alterations thereof, shall be recorded in the books of land evidence of the town where the Library, Academy, or School-house is situated. Any such corporation shall not be dissolved by any reduction of the number of its members.

Passed June Session, 1847.

True Copy: *Witness*,
HENRY BOWEN, Sec'y.

REMARKS

On some provisions of the School Laws and on the duties of different officers and bodies corporate under them.

NOTE.—The § and ¶ refer to the School Laws. Where no act is particularly mentioned, the act of June, 1845, is intended.

TOWNS.

1. In order to receive its proportion of money from the State Treasury, a town must vote to raise at least one-third as much as it received from the State the year preceding, (§ IV. ¶ 3.) and if voted annually, the vote must be passed on or before July 1st in every year, otherwise it cannot receive an order on the State Treasury. § III. ¶ 2. But an appropriation may be made by a standing by-law, under which the town treasurer may every year appropriate the necessary funds.

2. The towns have the power to direct whether the money they themselves raise, and also the registry money, shall be divided among the districts equally, or in proportion to the number of children, or of attendance. This may be done by a standing by-law. See § V. ¶ 11. But if the town neglects to give directions, the school committee may divide it. Act of Oct., 1846, § 11.

3. A town may, instead of having a division by districts, vote to have all its school concerns managed without such division; and whether divided into districts or not, they may vote to build school-houses by a general town tax, and to establish schools of different grades without reference to such division. § VI. § XVII. § IV. ¶ 2.

4. It is believed that where a town is divided into districts, and each district has trustees to manage its own local affairs, it will be better to have the town's committee a small one, provided competent persons can be obtained to undertake it. Their duties are to examine teachers, visit and have a supervision, of the schools. There is danger that a large committee will not meet often, and that they will attempt to perform too many of their duties by small sub-committees of one or more. The delegation by the whole committee, to each member, of the power to manage some particular district, was one great cause of the inefficiency of the former system. The examination of teachers, will, in most cases, be better done by the whole committee; and incompetent persons will be less likely to apply to the whole committee, than to a single member to be examined.

As visiting the schools and examining them in a proper manner will occupy a great deal of time, which few can afford to devote to the public service without remuneration, several towns have adopted the plan of pay-

ing some one or more of the committee for performing this duty. It is believed that all the towns would find it for their advantage to pursue this course. It has already been tried with success in Cumberland, Hopkinton, and Smithfield.

5. *Library.* By § VII., Towns are empowered to raise money by tax to establish a town school library, and to adopt regulations for its use. The Commissioner will be at all times ready to give his advice, and to aid in the selection and purchase of the proper books.

TOWN TREASURER.

6. The town treasurer should, as soon as the State money is apportioned, which is to be done in May, (§ III. ¶ 1.) and as soon as the school committee have made their report and the town has voted to raise what the law requires, apply to the Commissioner for an order for his town's portion. If the town appropriation be made by a standing by-law instead of an annual vote, he may apply immediately, provided the school committee have made the report the law requires. Some towns make a practice of depositing their school money in some bank, which will pay them a low rate of interest. But it should be always subject to order.

If the treasurer is newly elected, or his election not generally known, it may be well for him to procure from the town clerk a certificate to the fact of his being treasurer.

He is to keep a separate account of all school moneys, and is, within one week after the annual town meeting, to furnish the school committee with a particular account of all school moneys in his hands, the sources from which derived, &c. All orders for money on the town treasurer must be signed by the *chairman* of the school committee. See Form 32.

7. The town treasurer, to obtain an order on the State treasury, should furnish to the Commissioner a certificate that the town has appropriated for the support of public schools for the current year, $ (*being at least a sum equal to one-third of what the town received from the State last year.*) Or the town clerk may certify to the fact. This certificate may be in the following form.

Town of A. D. 18

I certify that in addition to the funds received from the State, and to the unexpended school moneys of last year, received from all sources, this town has by vote passed in a legal town meeting, appropriated the sum of dollars, to be paid out of the town treasury, for the support of public schools in this town for the present year, according to law.

A. B.,
Town Treasurer of said town.

To C. D.,
Commissioner of Public Schools.

SCHOOL COMMITTEES.

8. The school committee should first be engaged and then elect their chairman and clerk. It would be well to have the certificate of their own election and engagement made upon the record book itself, as loose papers are more liable to be lost. *See Form* 1, 2, 3.

The number of the school committee, either three, six, nine, or twelve, is to be fixed at each annual town election. See § IV. ¶ 4, and act of Oct., 1846, § 14. By Act of June, 1847, the Committee may consist of one for each school district.

9. *Vacancies.* If any member of the committee resigns, the rest (if there be a quorum) may supply the vacancy. If so many resign or refuse to serve, as not to leave a quorum, the vacancy must, as in case of the other town officers, be supplied by the town council, until the next town meeting. See Digest, page 302, § 6.

10. *Meetings.* They should hold meetings at least quarterly, as the law requires. But the schools cannot prosper much unless meetings are held much oftener than this. By frequent meetings and conversation, much valuable information may be acquired. And it would be well for committees to be continually endeavoring to obtain a knowledge of the situation of the different districts, the amount of taxable property in each district, the number of the agricultural and manufacturing population respectively, &c. &c. and this sort of information should be preserved, as it is absolutely necessary to enable them and their successors to discharge well their duties.

All acts of the school committee to be valid, must be done at a *meeting* of the committee. Giving their assent to any measure separately, and without meeting, would probably be held illegal.

The manner of calling special meetings of the committee, should be regulated by by-law. If there be no by-law, the chairman should call them, and should give every member notice if possible. See R. 30.

11. Within a week after the annual town meeting, the school committee are entitled to receive from the town treasurer, a report of all school moneys in his hands, specifying particularly the sources whence derived, &c. See § IX.

12. As soon as elected, the clerk of the committee should forward to the School Commissioner a list of the names of the committee, with their post-office address, and should also inform him in what way packages or bundles can most conveniently be sent to them. This will materially aid the Commissioner in the discharge of the duties of his office.

13. *Laying off Districts.* A town may vote to manage its schools collectively or by districts. If there are districts, the whole power of laying them off, making new ones, altering them, and of settling disputed boundaries, is vested by law in the school committee, subject to an appeal, to the Commissioner, whose decision, when approved by a Judge of the Supreme Court, is to be final. See act of October, 1846, § 5.

Although the law has not required any particular notice to be given before deciding on making or altering districts, yet reasonable notice should be given in all such cases.

In laying off districts, regard should be had to the convenience of attending school, the number of scholars, the valuation of property, and ability to provide school-houses, &c. It will be always expedient to bound them by rivers, roads, or other natural or well-known boundaries, when practicable. When the lines can, without inconvenience, be so drawn as to include all of any person's farm, in the same district where his dwelling-house is, it will save a great deal of trouble and expense in assessing taxes.

In New York they bound their school districts by lines running from one specified point to another, and when this line crosses any person's farm or lot, they tax the whole farm or lot in the district where the dwelling-house is, if there be one on it. But this rule is objectionable, because when a tax is contemplated, a person so situated may avoid a portion

of it by a fraudulent conveyance of his land. And every purchase or sale of land so situated does practically alter the bounds of the district.

Districts must be set off by bounds including certain land. It is not sufficient (in those towns where the schools are managed and the school-houses built by districts,) to declare that a district shall be composed of such and such *persons*. The Supreme Court of Massachusetts have declared such districting to be invalid. 7 Pick. 106 and 12 Pick. 206.

When a district which has built a school-house, is divided, or its bounds altered so as to take off any portion of it, the joint property is to be equitably apportioned among them. If the district owe any debts, they should of course be considered in the apportionment. See the law § XI. In some cases this can be done by a division of the property itself. In other cases the rent or income may be apportioned, according to the peculiar circumstances. The school committee must decide such cases, subject, of course, to the appeal provided by the law.

Where it is more convenient for a person belonging to one district to send to a school in another district, the school committee may alter the bounds so as to include his house; or the trustees, or if no trustees, the committee may permit his children to attend such school and pay for it under the provisions of § XXIV. And the committee may make the same arrangement for those who can more conveniently attend a school situated in a neighboring town.

In every town, after the boundaries of the districts are settled, it would be well to have a description of them *printed* for general information and circulation. They might, with propriety, be attached to the School Regulations.

14. The power of forming *joint* districts on the borders of the different towns, is also confided to the school committees. Many of the manufacturing villages are on streams which are the boundaries of towns, and are partly in both towns. In such situations the school committees should encourage the union of the adjoining districts, (see § XIX.) as both together may be able to establish a better school, or keep one for a longer time, or to establish them of different grades. See Act of June, 1846, § 1.

The manner of apportioning the money to a joint district is regulated by Act of October, 1846, § 12.

In assigning to a district which forms part of a joint district, its proportion of that part of the money which is divided according to average attendance, the committee will of course take the average attendance of that portion of the scholars who belong to their own town.

13. *Location, plans, &c.* The school committee are to locate all school-houses, and to approve of all plans and specifications for building them. When the district is unanimous, and the location on the whole unobjectionable, the committee will defer to their wishes; but in cases of dispute, they should endeavor to select such a site as will best accommodate the greater portion of the district. Plans for the erection and repairs of district school-houses must also be approved by the school committee, or by the Commissioner. This provision, together with that requiring that the school committee must approve all rates of tuition and taxes that any district may order, was intended to operate as a salutary check against the improper exercise of the powers given to school districts. In some districts there may be but few legal voters; in others, the majority of voters may be persons not interested in the property in the district; and various

other cases may happen where a minority should be protected against the abuse of the power of taxation. And for this purpose, the law requires the approbation of the school committee, the majority of whom will probably belong to other parts of the town, and have no private or personal interest in the local controversies and disputes of the district.

For the same reason the law requires the plan of building to be approved by the committee. The committee should therefore investigate this subject, and visit and examine the best school-houses, so as to be prepared to act when called on. They will find a variety of plans in the document on school-houses, attached to the Report of the Commissioner in 1845, which they can modify according to circumstances, and from which, at least, they may derive many useful hints.

16. *Examining Teachers.* The examination of persons wishing to teach as principal or assistants, the granting of certificates of qualification, and the annulling of such certificates, are among the most important duties devolving on the school committee, and on their faithful performance the efficiency of the law mainly depends.

The inefficiency of the former school system in many of the towns was owing to the fact that the duties of examining teachers and visiting the schools were too generally neglected or ill performed.

The law gives the committee the power to appoint a sub-committee for the purpose of examining teachers. But it is respectfully suggested that where the whole committee can meet for this purpose, it is most advisable. It will have a more imposing effect upon the teachers themselves, and incompetent persons will be less likely to present themselves.

In making such examinations, whether by the whole board, or by the sub-committee, they should inquire *first, as to moral character.* On this point the committee should be entirely satisfied, before proceeding further. Some opinion can be formed from the general deportment and language of the applicant, but the safest course will be, with regard to those who are strangers to the committee, to insist on the written testimony of persons of the highest respectability in the towns and neighborhoods where they have resided; and especially to require the certificate of the school committee and parents of the districts where they have taught before, as to the character they have sustained, and the influence they have exerted in the school and society.

While a committee should not endeavor to inquire into the peculiar religious or sectarian opinions of a teacher, and should not entertain any preferences or prejudices founded on any such grounds, they ought, without hesitation, to reject every person who is in the habit of ridiculing, deriding or scoffing at religion.

And while the examination should in no case be extended to the *political* opinions of the candidate, yet it may with propriety extend "to their manner of expressing such belief, or maintaining it. If that manner is in itself boisterous and disorderly, intemperate and offensive, it may well be supposed to indicate ungoverned passions, or want of sound principles of conduct, which would render its possessor obnoxious to the inhabitants of the district, and unfit for the sacred duties of a teacher of youth, who should instruct by example as well as by precept."—*N. Y. Regulations.*

Second, as to literary attainments. The lowest grade of attainments is specified in the school law in the *proviso* to § XX. ¶ 2. Every teacher must have been found qualified by examination, or by previous experience,

which must have come to the personal knowledge of the committee, to teach the English language, arithmetic, penmanship, and the rudiments of geography and history. An examination as to the attainments of the teacher in these branches might be so conducted as to test his capacity, in those particulars, to teach any grade of schools. Some reference, therefore, must be had to the condition and wants of the district schools as they now are. But no person should be considered qualified to teach any school, who cannot speak and write the English language, if not elegantly, at least correctly. He should be a good reader, be able to make the hearer understand and feel all that the author intended. He should be able to give the analysis as well as explain the meaning of the words of the sentence, and explain all dates, names and allusions. He should be a good speller; and to test this, as well as his knowledge of punctuation, the use of capitals, &c., he should be required to write out his answers to some of the questions of the committee. He should understand practically the first principles of English grammar, as illustrated in his own writing and conversation. He should be able to write a good hand, to make a pen, and teach others how to do both. He should show his knowledge of geography by applying his definitions of the elementary principles to the geography of his own town, state and country, and by questions on the map and globe. He should be able to answer promptly all questions relating to the leading events of the history of the United States and of his own state. In arithmetic, he should be well versed in some treatise on mental arithmetic, and be able to work out before the committee, on the black board or slate, such questions as will test his ability to teach the text books on arithmetic prescribed for the class of schools he will be engaged in.

Third, his ability to instruct. This ability includes aptness to teach, a power of simplifying difficult processes,—a skill in imparting knowledge,—of inducing pupils to try, and to try in such a way that they will derive encouragement as they go along, which must be given by nature, but may be cultivated by observation and practice. An examination into the literary qualifications of a candidate, as ordinarily conducted, and even when conducted by an experienced committee-man, or even by a teacher, will not always determine whether this ability is possessed, or possessed in a very eminent degree. Hence it is desirable for the committee to ascertain what success the candidate has had in other places, if he has taught before; and if this evidence cannot be had, whether he has received any instruction in the art of teaching; or has been educated under a successful teacher; or has visited good schools. In conducting the examination to ascertain this point, the candidate should be asked how he would teach the several studies. He should be asked how he would proceed in teaching the alphabet to a child who had never been instructed at all in it; as for example, whether he would give him words or single letters; or letters having a general resemblance; or in the order in which they are ordinarily printed; or by copying them on a slate or black-board, and then repeating their names after the teacher; or by picking them out of a collection of alphabet blocks, &c. &c. So in spelling. He should be asked how he would classify his scholars in this branch, and the methods of arranging and conducting a class exercise; how far he would adopt with the class the simultaneous method, and how far the practice of calling on each member in regular order; how far he would put out the word to the whole class, and after requiring all to spell it *mentally*, name a particular scholar

to spell it *orally;* how far he would adopt the method of writing the word, and especially the difficult words, on a slate or blackboard; how far he would connect spelling with the reading lessons, &c.

It will be more satisfactory sometimes, perhaps, to have a class of small scholars present at the examination, and let the candidate go through a recitation with them, so that the committee can have a practical specimen of his tact in teaching each branch of study; in explaining and removing difficulties, &c.

The same method of examination should be carried into reading, and every other branch. It is more important to know that the teacher has sound views as to methods, than that he is qualified as to literary attainments.

Fourth, ability to govern. This is an important qualification, insisted upon by the law, and indispensable to the success of the schools. On this point the committee should call for the evidence of former experience, wherever the candidate has taught before, and when this cannot be had, the examination should elicit the plans of the teacher as to making children comfortable, keeping them all usefully employed, and interested in their studies, his best system of rewards and punishments, and examples of the kinds of punishment he would resort to in particular cases, and all other matters pertaining to the good order and government of a school. In this connection, the age, manners, bearing, knowledge of the world, love and knowledge of children, &c., of the applicant will deserve attention.

In addition to these qualifications which the law requires, the address and personal manners and habits of the applicant should be inquired into, for these will determine in a great measure the manners and habits of the children whom they will be called upon to teach.

The most thorough and satisfactory mode of conducting the examination is by written questions and answers; and it will be desirable, if the examination is conducted orally, to keep minutes of the questions and answers.

While every teacher should be found qualified in the particulars specified in the law, the certificate might show the peculiar qualification of the persons to whom it is given, viz. that he or she is peculiarly fitted for a primary school, or a high school, as principal or assistant, as the case may be.

The school committee must remember that on the thoroughness and fidelity with which this duty is performed, depends in a great measure the success or failure of the school system. The whole machinery moves to bring good teachers into the schools, and to keep them as long, and under as favorable circumstances as possible.

If the teacher adds to his other qualifications, a knowledge of the art of singing, it will be an additional recommendation to him with those who desire to have a good school. Singing in school serves as a recreation and amusement, especially for the smaller scholars; it exercises and strengthens their voices and lungs, and by its influence on the disposition and morals, enables a teacher to govern his school with comparative ease.

The committee should exercise a sound discretion in the examination. If a person has been before examined by them, and the committee have often visited his school, and know him to be a good teacher, the law allows them to give him a certificate founded on this experience. (*See proviso* § XX. ¶ 2.) But re-examinations can in no case do any injury, and by gradually increasing their rigor and adding to the requirements, much may

be done towards raising the general standard of education. The committee should, for convenience of reference, keep a tabular list of the names of all persons examined by them, either on their common record book, or in a book kept for that purpose, with columns for the date, age, place of residence of the applicant, the result of the examination, and any other remarks that may appear worthy of remembrance.

School committees should endeavor to encourage, by all the means in their power, *our own young men* to come forward and qualify themselves as teachers. A large portion of the money expended here has been paid to teachers from abroad, many of whom were persons who could not obtain schools where they were better known. While the great object should be to secure the services of the best teachers, from whatever state they may come, it is certainly of great importance to the State, morally, intellectually, and politically, that we should hereafter not be so dependent upon citizens of other states for our teachers as we have heretofore been. The large amount of money carried away every year is in fact one of the least of the evils of this dependence. *For the Form of Certificate*, F. 6.

17. *Annulling Certificates.* As a teacher's qualifications depend not merely upon his learning, (of which a committee can judge from examination,) but upon his moral character, his disposition and temper, and his capacity to impart information, and to govern a school, in regard to all which the committee may be deceived or not fully informed, the law gives the committee the power to annul any certificate they may have given, if on trial the teacher proves unqualified. A teacher may also refuse to adopt the proper books, may introduce improper books, may refuse to adopt what the committee deem the best methods of instruction, or may violate other regulations of the committee. In such cases a remedy is necessary.

Unless the offence is gross, and the evidence palpable, it will generally be best to give the teacher notice of any complaint before deciding to annul his certificate. And in many cases friendly advice, and a private warning conveyed in courteous language, may settle the difficulty and render any public proceeding unnecessary. *See the Form* 8, *and note.*

If the teacher received his certificate from the Commissioner, or a county inspector, the committee or trustees should apply immediately to the Commissioner, who will decide according to the circumstances, and promptly, if the occasion requires it.

18. *Visitation of Schools.* There was no duty of the school committees under the old law more generally neglected than that of visitation.

The new law makes it the *express duty* of committees and trustees to visit the schools often. Without personal visits to the schools, the committee can know nothing about the teacher's capacity to impart information, or about his method of instruction and government.

By act of June, 1847, the Committee are authorized to employ some suitable person to visit the schools in their stead.

Visiting the schools also has the effect of encouraging the teacher in the performance of his duties; and if the teacher is visited and treated with proper respect by the committees, trustees, and parents, it materially aids to secure to him respectful treatment from the scholars, and enables him to govern his school and preserve order with ease, and without resorting to corporeal punishment.

But the greatest effect is on the pupils themselves. School is now considered by many of them as a place of punishment. But if their parents

and others visit them often, and take an interest in their studies and progress, it gives a new character at once to the school and the school-room, and they contemplate it with pleasure instead of dread.

It will also have the effect of accustoming the pupils to recite before strangers, and help them to get rid of that timidity and reserve which, if not early removed, may prove a serious hindrance to their success in many pursuits in after life.

While it will be advisable to assign one or more schools to each member of the committee, for the purpose of visitation and general supervision, it will be very desirable that all the schools shall be visited at least once a term by the *same* person or persons, so that a comparison can be instituted between the different teachers and schools, and the official reports and returns be made out more understandingly. The trustees and parents of each district should be invited to accompany the committee on their visits; and it will be well to encourage the teachers to visit each other's schools, with a few of their most advanced scholars.

In visiting schools, whether by the whole board, sub-committee, or individually, the following are among the objects which deserve attention:

The condition of the school-house and appurtenances; its location; size and condition of yard and out-buildings; construction, size, outward appearance, and state of repair of building; by whom built and owned, whether by town, district or proprietors; number and size of entries, and whether furnished with scraper, mat, hooks and shelves for hats, outer garments, water-pail and cup, broom, duster, &c.; dimensions of school-room, and its condition as to light, whether too much or too little—as to the air, pure or impure,—as to temperature, whether too high or too low; modes of ventilation, whether by lowering or raising upper or lower sash, by opening into attic, by flue or otherwise; whether heated by close or open stove, fire-place or furnace; construction and arrangement of seats and desks; whether all the scholars, and especially the younger, are comfortably seated, with backs to lean against, and with their feet resting on the floor, and all facing the teacher; whether there is a platform where the teacher can overlook the whole school, and aisles to allow of his passing to every scholar to give such instruction as may be necessary, in their seats; whether there is a place to arrange the classes for recitation, and accommodations for visitors, &c.

On entering the school, the committee will first ascertain all necessary particulars respecting the teacher, such as his certificate, general plan, &c. These will enable them to form a proper judgment of what takes place in the course of their subsequent inspection and inquiries.

The school register should be called for, and such particulars as to the number and names of the scholars, their age, parents, attendance and studies, should be gleaned, as will enable them to speak on the importance of regular and punctual attendance, to expose the evils of the contrary practice, and to commend before the whole school those who are among the most regular. An inspection of the register will inform the committee what children are not connected with the school, and a kind and timely call, a word with the parents or guardian, may save such children from ignorance, and the community from its consequences.

The committee should inquire into the number of classes, and the studies they pursue. Such exercises should be called for as will exhibit the proficiency of the pupils, and the methods of instruction adopted by the

teacher, and enable the committee to judge of the tact of the teacher in imparting information. The teacher, in justice to himself and his pupils, should be allowed to conduct some of the exercises himself, and in his usual manner, as the scholars, (if not used to being visited by strangers) will be less timid when examined by him, and the committee will have a better opportunity to see his mode of instruction. But the committee should also ask questions, and in some cases take the examination into their own hands.

It will be well to place in the hands of the more advanced scholars, written or printed questions, to be answered in writing, while the examination of other classes is going forward. And the same or similar questions should be asked in every school visited, and the answers will be to some extent an unexceptionable standard of comparison between the teachers and the schools.

The committee should be careful to notice the manner in which the pupils spell and read. In reading, especially, there is great carelessness in many of our schools. They should also observe the teacher's manners and mode of governing. If the school is not provided with proper maps, blackboards, &c., by proper remarks on their uses and importance, they may be the means of inducing the district to procure them.

Such inquiries should be made as will show how far the rules and regulations of the school committee are observed, as to teachers, books, the cleanliness and preservation of the school-house, the manners of the pupils, &c.

Great care should be taken not to wound unnecessarily the feelings of teacher or pupils, and commendation should be bestowed wherever it is deserved.

19. *Selecting Books.* The schools have heretofore suffered much from the great variety of books used. It has rendered classification impossible, and whenever a scholar has changed his district or his school, a new set of books was to be purchased. Uniformity should be established in the schools of a town at least. And by proper management, by procuring some person in the town or county to act as agent, a great saving in expense to the parents can be effected. In regard to the selection, the committee are entitled to the advice of the Commissioner and the benefit of his experience; and it is expected that they in turn will co-operate with him in such measures as he may recommend or adopt to secure a uniformity of books in the State.

But no rule which a committee may adopt as to the books to be used, should be so framed or construed, as to prevent a teacher from using explanations or illustrations to be found in other books upon any particular subject. In arithmetic and algebra it will be a profitable exercise for the teacher to give the pupils occasionally for solution, questions and problems from other books besides the prescribed ones.

No book should be introduced into any public school by the committee, containing any passage or matter reflecting in the least degree upon any religious sect, or which any religious sect would be likely to consider offensive.

20. *Rules and Regulations.* The school committee should prescribe a system of rules and regulations respecting the age, admission, attendance, classification, studies, discipline and instruction of pupils, in all the schools; the examination and duties of teachers; the kinds of books to be used,

&c. Useful hints in framing such rules may be derived from the "Regulations" of the Providence schools, appended to the Report of the School Commissioner for 1845, p. 240, and from the specimens of such rules, which will be found among the *Forms*, 39.

The age for admission should be uniform in all the districts of a town, as otherwise some districts may have the advantage over others in the apportionment of the public money.

21. *Apportioning Money.* The committee, having ascertained what they can depend upon from the state treasury, the town and the registry act, will apportion it as soon as possible according to § V. ¶ 11. But they are not authorized to pay out or give an order to any district which has not complied with ¶ 12, of § V. for the year preceding. The law makes a district's complying with the provisions of § V. ¶ 12, for one year, a pre-requisite to its receiving any money the next y[illegible] [As to the present year, however, see paragraph 7 of the Commissioner's circular, dated June 30, 1846, and act of Oct., 1846, § IX.]

As to apportioning money to a joint district, see R. 14, and act of Oct., 1846, § 12.

It will in all cases be desirable, and the safest course for the committee, to let the school money remain in the town treasury, (at interest, if possible) until the schools are kept, and not to give orders for it any faster than they are satisfied it is actually expended. It may then be paid to the teacher or his order, on his producing or sending a bill certified or allowed by the trustee, if there be any trustees, or otherwise at the discretion of the committee.

The committee will find it greatly to their convenience to keep a separate book for accounts. In this book a separate account might be opened with each school or school district, in which the district should be from time to time credited with the money apportioned to them, and then charged with the orders which have been given to them.

Another separate account may be so kept, by listing all the sums of money appropriated to schools on one side, and all orders given on the other, as to show at any time the balance under the committee's control.

22. *Reports.* By § XIV. ¶ 7, trustees are to report to the school committee, at such time and in such form as the committee or Commissioner may prescribe. These returns must be made in season to enable the committee to digest them, and prepare a report to the Commissioner by July 1st; § V. ¶ 13, for which reports the Commissioner will furnish forms. The committee are, also, at the annual town meeting, to make a written or printed report to the town, of all their doings, the condition of the schools, plans for their improvement, &c.

23. The committee must aid in organizing districts by giving the notice for the first meeting, to be signed by the *chairman* of the committee. (See § V. ¶ 1.) If there be a school-house, the meeting must be there; otherwise the committee must fix the place. *See the form for the notice,* [F, 11,] *and* § XII. *of the law.*

24. Any district when met, may, by § XVI., vote to devolve upon the committee, with their consent, the whole management of their schools; and in that case the committee can exercise in that district all the powers which the district itself might exercise, may keep the school, have the custody of the school-house, fix the rates of tuition, &c.

25. By Act of June, 1846, § III, if any district neglect to organize, or

if organized, shall for the space of six months neglect or refuse to establish a school, the committee may, either by themselves or their agent, employ and pay a teacher for the district.

26. All orders, notices, and all public official papers, must be signed by the *chairman.* It will be well to recollect this provision of the law, to prevent mistakes. School Act, § V, ¶ 1.

27. *Gradation of Schools.* The school committee can promote a gradation of schools, or a separation of the younger and the older scholars, and the primary and advanced studies into distinct schools or departments.

Whenever the schools of a town are managed independent of districts, a sufficient number of schools of different grades can be established by the committee, at convenient locations, varying in the studies pursued according to the circumstances of the population. See § IV. ¶ 1.

And in towns which are divided into districts, there are many villages and thickly settled districts, where a gradation of schools can be introduced. By separating the small children from the older scholars, the instruction of both can be carried on to greater advantage, and with a great economy of time and expense. By putting the small children under the care of a female teacher, they can have more of the teacher's time devoted to them, and will learn with a rapidity surprising to those who have not seen the effects of it. This enables the teacher of the large scholars to devote his whole attention to their improvement.

By act of June 1847, where there is a gradation of schools, a district may increase the rate of tuition to $2.

They may recommend the union of two or more adjacent districts, for the purpose of establishing a secondary or grammar school for the older and more advanced pupils of each district. This can be done to advantage in almost every town. See § XVIII.

28. *Records.* At the beginning of the year the committee should have a warrant or certificate of their election from the town clerk, (See Form 1,) which it would be well to have made upon the record book itself, as loose papers are often lost. Then let the certificate of engagement follow in order.

The clerk should record any motion negatived, as well as those adopted, as parties may be interested, and have a right to appeal, in many cases, from a negative vote as well as from an affirmative one.

When it can be conveniently done, the minutes of the proceedings, as drawn out by the clerk, should be read in open meeting, or at the next meeting, for correction, if necessary. Misunderstandings may thus be prevented.

The clerk should always record the names of the members of the committee present at any meeting. He should also keep copies of all abstracts, and of all reports made to the Commissioner, so that the committee may have them for future reference and comparison.

TRUSTEES.

29 Trustees may be annually appointed by the districts. If a vacancy happens after the annual meeting, the school committee can supply it. By act of Oct. 1846, § 4, all trustees hold office until their successors are qualified.

Trustees, on being appointed, should send to the Commissioner information of their appointment, with the name of their post-office, that he may know how to address any communication to them.

30. If there are three trustees, a majority can act. "Where a body or board of officers is constituted by law to perform a trust for the public, or to execute a power or perform a duty prescribed by law, it is not necessary that all should concur in the act done. The act of the majority is the act of the body. And where all have due notice of the time and place of meeting, in the manner prescribed by law, if so prescribed,—or by the rules and regulations of the body itself, if there be any—otherwise if reasonable notice is given, and no practice or unfair means are used to prevent all from attending and participating in the proceeding, it is no objection that all the members do not attend, if there be a quorum." 21 Pick. Rep. 82.

31. The trustees must employ the teacher by § XIV. ¶3. The fifth paragraph of § XIII. which was inconsistent with this is repealed by § 14. of the Act of October, 1846.

In employing a teacher or assistant teacher, trustees should be cautious to employ no one who has not a legal certificate, and not to employ one after notice that his certificate is annulled, as in such a case, the trustees might be held personally liable for the teacher's wages. (See the form.) The trustees should see that the teacher keeps a proper register of attendance, in order that his district may receive its due portion of school-money next year; and when the school is over, this register should be deposited with the trustees, or in the office of the clerk of the district. They should require the teacher to furnish them with such items of information as are necessary to make out their annual report to the town committee, which report should be made about the first of May, or sooner if the school is out, or at such time as the committee shall fix. Forms for these reports will be furnished to the districts, and can be obtained from the committee or from the town clerk's office.

If trustees appropriate any of the public money to pay a teacher not legally examined, they are liable to a penalty under § XXV.

The school must be kept four months in order to obtain the money for the next year.

If any scholars can more conveniently attend school in an adjoining district, trustees are authorized by § XXIV, to make a bargain for that purpose. They should also take care that the school is kept in a house which will not be disapproved of by the committee of the town. § V, ¶ 12.

32. Trustees should regard the visiting of the schools as one of the most important of their duties, and which should by no means be neglected. For some account of the subjects they should inquire into, whenever they visit a school, see R. 18.

33. When a district is organized and has trustees, they are to notify the annual and special district meetings. See the Forms and § XII. of the Law, and if there be no district school-house, they are to fix the place of meeting.

34. Trustees should encourage meetings of teachers in their neighborhood, for mutual improvement. And if any teacher neglects or refuses to attend a teacher's institute, when organized under proper auspices, and when he conveniently can, it should be regarded as a sign of unfitness for the place. No one is so well qualified, as not to be able to learn from his fellows many useful hints as to methods of teaching, books, &c., and no one should be unwilling or too proud to learn.

35. Trustees should see that an inventory of all the maps, books and other property belonging to the district, is made from time to time, and preserved among the papers of the district.

They should also keep a regular account of all moneys they may receive from assessments or other sources.

36. A trustee should recollect that in order to obtain from the school-committee any order for money, they must have made a proper return from their district for the year ending on the first of May previous, and must also furnish to the committee a certificate that the "teachers' money," (i. e. the money which the district received from the town treasurer as their part of the state appropriation) for the year ending the 1st of May previous, had been applied to the wages of teachers, and for no other purpose whatever. School Act, § V. ¶ 11 and 12.

For further particulars, see the Forms and notes, and § XIV. of the law, and R. 41.

DISTRICTS.

37. Districts are declared to be bodies corporate. They are to be numbered by the school committee, § X. As it was feared by some that the repealing clause of the new school law might be construed to do away with the old, and require a new division of districts, the 1st section of the act of June, 1846, was framed so as to recognize the old division, so that districts, single and joint, remain as they were before the passing of the law, until altered by the Committee.

All district officers must, according to the Constitution, be electors.

38. *Meetings.* As to notifying district meetings, see the Forms and § XII. of the Law. When met, the district must organize by choosing a moderator and clerk. The moderator and clerk, when elected may, by Act of Oct. 1846, § 1, administer the engagement to each other in open meeting, or if a justice or other officer is present, may be engaged by him, and the clerk's record will be presumptive evidence of the facts. Every district meeting may choose its own moderator who will preside at the meeting and any adjournment of it. But the clerk is an annual officer. They may then vote to devolve the care of their school on the school committee, (see Form,) or may appoint a trustee or trustees to manage it. A collector and treasurer may be appointed at the annual or at any special meeting, when a tax is ordered; but it would be better to appoint a treasurer at the annual meeting regularly. See F. 14, 15.

By Act of January, 1847, the Moderator need not be engaged.

If the Moderator refuses to put questions to vote, or he or any other district officer violates the law, they are liable to pay a fine, by Act of October, 1846, § 10.

The annual district meeting is to be in April or May, but special meetings may be called by the trustees at any time.

By act of Oct. 1846, § 3, inhabitants of districts may be witnesses in all cases, and so may prove (if disputed) the legality of the notice and meeting.

39. Vacancies in the office of trustee must be filled by the school committee. Vacancies in other offices can be filled at any regular or special meetings. Vacancies may sometimes happen from a refusal to serve, or from a resignation. The latter need not be in writing.

A person resigning should give information of it to the officer or persons who have power by law to fill the vacancy.

40. At all district meetings a reasonable time should be allowed for the people to assemble. And if in the course of proceeding, any legal vote is rejected, or any illegal vote received by the moderator, by which the result is affected, an appeal may be taken to the Commissioner for redress.

41. Districts may fix a rate of tuition to be paid by the parents towards the support of the school, (provided said rate be approved by the school committee.) But no scholar can be excluded from the school on account of the inability of his parent to pay the rate.

Or the district may authorize the trustees to fix the rate or assessment. And either district or trustees must exempt such as they consider unable to pay the assessment. And to guard against any abuse of this power, if a person is assessed for a rate who is unable to pay, he may apply to any Justice of the Peace and be discharged on taking the poor debtor's oath, without waiting to be committed to jail. See Act of October, 1846, § 5 and 6 and 7. A liberal discretion should be used in exempting poor parents from the rate Few will claim an exemption in such a case unless there is a real inability.

42. *Quorum of District Meetings.* It has been repeatedly decided in the courts of England and this country, that at common law where there is no statute provision, when a meeting of a corporation, consisting of an *indefinite* number of persons (as towns, districts, &c.) is properly notified, no particular number is requisite to form a quorum, but a majority of those present may act.

To require a majority of the voters of a district, would in many cases prevent the doing of any business at all. And to fix any particular number would be difficult, because there are some districts where this number would be more than the whole number of voters. The law has therefore required the notice of the meeting to be given with great particularity, and then presumes that every voter who does not attend, assents to what is done by those present.

At the same time, it will not be advisable to proceed in any matter of importance, such as laying a tax, &c., unless a respectable number of voters attend.

43. *Residence to vote.* If the person be entitled to vote in town meeting, and be an actual resident of the district, no particular length of residence in the district is necessary to qualify him.

44. *Reconsideration.* A district may reconsider and rescind any vote at any time before any contract has been made under it. But after a contract has been made, or an individual has incurred any expense or liabilities in consequence of a vote of the district, they cannot with justice rescind it. And if rescinded, they will be held liable to make good all damages and losses incurred.

45. *Debts, &c. due from district, how recovered.* By the decisions which have been made in several of the states, as to towns, parishes, school districts, and other corporations, which generally have no corporate funds, the individual members and inhabitants are personally liable, and an execution against the corporation can be levied on the property of any inhabitant.

46. *Taxation.* The districts have power to purchase, hire and repair school-houses, provide blackboards, maps, furniture, a clock or timepiece, a school library, bell, record and account books, mats, scrapers, water-pails, and other necessary and useful appendages. The law gives them a general power to tax for school purposes. They may tax to pay rent of a hired house. They may also tax to repair a hired house, provided they have a valid lease of it for a definite period. And to guard against any abuse of this power, the tax must be approved by the school com-

mittee, and the plans for building and repairs must also be approved by the committee or Commissioner. And in all cases of laying taxes, it would be better to specify the precise amount, or the precise rate of the tax.

Fuel and tuition (over and above what is received from the town and state money) may be raised either by a tax on the property of the district or by an assessment on the parents of the scholars. See § XIII, ¶ 6. Act of Oct. 1846, § 6, and R. 41. But an assessment for this purpose must be authorized by the district.

In building school-houses by taxation, districts will take notice that the act about building school houses in the Digest, page 539, is repealed by the new law, and that all proceedings must be under the Act of June, 1845.

See the Forms and notes, especially note to F. 20.

47. *Use of School-house for other purposes.* A school-house built or bought by taxation, on the property of the district, should not be used for any other purpose than keeping a school, or for purposes directly connected with education, except by the general consent of the tax-paying voters. The law gives the district the power of raising money by tax for no other purposes. To construe it otherwise, would be indirectly to give to the majority of a district the power to erect a meeting-house for themselves, and to tax those of a different persuasion, who constituted the minority, to help them build it. But where a school-house is given to the district or built by subscription, its use will of course depend upon the terms of the donation or subscription.

A district cannot vote to dissolve itself. Such a vote will be wholly null and void.

JOINT DISTRICTS.

48. As to mode of uniting two contiguous districts in adjoining towns, see L. § XIX, and F. After they are organized, the trustees will notify the subsequent meetings, according to the provisions of § XII. They are considered for many purposes as one district, elect the same officers as if they were only one district, and may prescribe the manner of giving notice of future meetings. See § XIX. and R. 14, and Act of June 1846, §1.

DISTRICT CLERK.

49. The district clerk should be engaged. (*see Forms.* 5,) and should have his engagement certified by the proper officer upon the record book of the district, as then it will not be liable to be lost.

By act of January, 1847. the clerk, when engaged, may engage all other district officers.

He should make himself thoroughly acquainted with all the provisions of the law relating to district meetings, notices &c., as upon his proceedings and proper management their legality will in many cases depend. See R. 38. and F. 14, 15, &c.

When a trustee or a treasurer is elected, the clerk should make out and sign and seal a warrant or certificate of his election, upon which he may be engaged. *See Forms.* 4 *and* 5.

The clerk should, at the request of any person interested, record a motion which is negatived, as well as a motion passed, as in many cases a person may be entitled to an appeal.

In the record of every meeting, it would be well for the clerk to state how the meeting was notified, and when and by whom the notices were posted up. In many cases, at some distance of time, it might be important

to know how the meeting was notified, and the evidence of it should not be left to depend upon mere recollection. By Act of October, 1846, § 2 and 3, the record of the clerk is made prima facie evidence that the meeting was legally notified, and inhabitants of the district can be admitted to prove the notice. But it would be easy and best to preserve one of the original notices themselves, especially when a tax is to be voted.

It would be well also for the clerk, at the close of every meeting, to read aloud the minutes he has made of the proceedings, so that any mistake may be corrected at the time.

DISTRICT TREASURER.

50. The district treasurer should have a certificate or warrant, be engaged, and give bond. His duties are very simple; to keep the district's money, if they have any, pay it out to order, and keep proper accounts of it, and exhibit them to the trustees or district when required. In case of collecting a tax, he must issue the warrant to the collector. *See Forms*, 22, 23, 24.

DISTRICT COLLECTOR.

51. *See the Forms for collecting taxes and notes, to F.* 20, *and R.* 46.

TEACHERS.

52. Every teacher is required (§ XXI,) to keep a register of all the scholars attending, their names, ages, names of parents or guardians, the time when they enter and leave school, and their daily attendance and the dates when the school is visited by the commissioner, county inspector, committee or trustees. Forms for these registers will be prepared by the Commissioner, (§ III. ¶ 3, and act of June 1846, § IV.) He must also furnish the trustees or district with such information as may be necessary to make the returns required by the school committee.

The teacher should inform the committee of the time of commencing and closing his school, in order that they may know when to visit it.

53. It is important that the register be correctly kept, and the average rightly calculated, as upon that depends the amount of money the district will receive next year.

To ascertain the average, place the number of those who have attended each half day in a column under each other successively, add together, and divide the sum by the number of half days the school has been kept. The result will be the average to be reported. In case the school is kept longer than the four months required by law, the committee must use their discretion in fixing a rule for calculating the average. It should be uniform in each town. Where a summer term and a winter term are kept, and a different set of scholars attend each term, the following will probably answer. Calculate the average for the first term of four months, as before stated. Then for the other term take the names of all those who did not attend the other term, calculate the average of their attendance and add it to the first.

A uniform rule should be adopted as to scholars belonging to one district who attend school in another.

54. The teacher should conform to all regulations of the school committee, in regard to hours, discipline, books, &c., as for any violation of them his certificate may be annulled, or he may be dismissed. He may, (if the

school committee by regulation authorize it,) suspend a scholar tempor e rily, until a hearing can be had before the committee, in which case, h should immediately notify the committee. (*See* § V. ¶ 8.)

The teacher should assist the trustees by all the means in his power, in making proper reports, as upon the accuracy and fullness of these reports may depend the success or failure of many provisions of the law, as well as the wisdom of future alterations of it.

If the teacher has a proper sense of the importance of his position, and conducts himself accordingly, he will secure to himself the affection and respect of the people of his district, by exerting his utmost powers to promote the moral and intellectual advancement, not only of his scholars, but of the community around him. The moral influence he may exert by his example and instructions, can hardly be estimated. And he may, by encouraging lectures and literary meetings, aid in diffusing much useful information.

55. In regard to the use of the Bible in schools, two observations occur here. If the committee prescribe, or the teacher wishes to have the Bible read in school, it should not be forced upon any children whose parents have any objections whatever to its use. In most cases the teacher will have no difficulty with the parents on this subject, if he conducts with proper kindness and courtesy. In the next place, no scholars should be set to read in the Bible at school, until they have learned to read with tolerable fluency. To use it as a text book for the younger scholars, often has the effect of leading them to look upon it with the same sort of careless disregard, and sometimes dislike, with which they regard their other school books, instead of that respect and veneration with which this Book of books should always be treated and spoken of.

56. There is another object, in the attainment of which teachers may materially aid. In almost every school there will be pupils studying surveying. By encouraging these to survey the limits of the district, he may not only give his scholars most valuable lessons in the practice of the art, but by overseeing and ascertaining its correctness, may aid in procuring a good map of the town and the state, now so much needed. These maps might be drawn on a scale of rods to an inch, and represent the rivers, roads, principal buildings and farms, and any remarkable monuments and natural features of the district. Copies could be sent to the school committee, who might put them together, and thus obtain a correct map of their township.

57. That the teacher may know that the law has amply provided for the protection of his school against all who may be disposed to disturb it, we publish here the provision of the law. "Every person who shall be convicted of willfully interrupting or disturbing any town or ward meeting, any assembly of people met for religious worship, or any public or private school, or any meeting lawfully and peaceably held for purposes of literary or scientific improvement, either within or without the place where such meeting or school is held, shall be imprisoned not exceeding one year, or fined not exceeding five hundred dollars." Digest, p. 395, § 93.

A complaint under this act may be made to the attorney general, or any justice of the peace.

APPEALS.

58. The law has wisely provided a cheap and efficient mode of settling all disputes arising under the school law. It was intended to save to districts and individuals the expense and trouble of a long suit in court. Any person aggrieved at any decision of any district, school committee, trustees, or county inspector, "or concerning any other matter arising under this act," may appeal to the Commissioner of Public Schools, who will notify and hear the parties without cost, and his decision, when approved by a Judge of the Supreme Court, is to be final. *See the Forms*, 33.

All appeals, however, should be taken within a reasonable time, and before any contract is made, or liability incurred, under the vote or act appealed from. If the appeal is not made within such a reasonable time, that circumstance alone will be a sufficient reason for dismissing it. And no appeal will be entertained unless made by the party aggrieved.

REPEAL.

59. The twenty-eighth section repeals all the general school acts, including the act relating to building school-houses, contained in the Digest, page 529, and all acts authorizing particular towns and districts to build school-houses, and perform other duties relating to schools. Only the *local* acts relating to Providence and Newport are excepted.

But as it was thought by some that this sweeping clause abolished the old school districts, § 1 of the act of June, 1846, was passed to remove the doubt, and all limits of school districts established by the towns, school committees (or, as was sometimes done, by the General Assembly on petition) are to remain as before the passage of the law, until legally altered.

DEAF, DUMB, AND BLIND.

60. By an act of Assembly, passed January, A. D. 1845, (Pamphlet Laws, page 616,) the sum of fifteen hundred dollars is to be annually appropriated for the education of the deaf, dumb and blind, and the Hon. Byron Diman was appointed Commissioner for its distribution. As there are a number of these in every town in the State, the school committees, and friends of education and humanity, should look them up and see that they receive their proper share of the appropriation. See the Act at length.

FORMS.

These Forms have been drawn out in order to assist those who may be disposed to undertake any office or duty under the school laws, to save them expense and trouble, and to bring about a uniformity of practice as far as can be done. These forms are not prescribed by law, but are believed to conform substantially to the law, and to be safe precedents.

1. *Warrant, or Certificate of Election of Committee.*

To of greeting:
This certifies that you, the said were at a town meeting, holden in, and for the town of on the day of A. D. 184 being the annual meeting of said town for choice of town officers, chosen to the office of school committee of said town, and are by virtue of said appointment fully authorized and empowered to discharge all the duties of said office, and to exercise all the powers thereto belonging, according to law, being first duly engaged as the law directs.

L. S. Witness my hand and the seal of said town hereto affixed by me, this day of A. D. 18

Town Clerk.

Note.—If not chosen at the annual town meeting, but at some other meeting previously appointed by the town, vary the phraseology accordingly. See § IV. ¶ 4. It will be advisable, although perhaps not absolutely necessary, for a committee to have a certificate of their election similar to the above, either one for each member or one for all collectively.

2. *Engagement of School Committee.*

You do solemnly swear [*or* affirm] that you will be true and faithful unto this State, and support the laws and con-

stitution thereof, and the Constitution of the United States; and that you will well and truly execute the office of school committee of the town of for the ensuing year, or until another be engaged in your room, or until you be legally discharged therefrom: so help you God: [*or*, this affirmation you make and give upon peril of the penalty of perjury.] *Digest, page* 305.

3. *Form of Certificate of above engagement.*

Town of A. D. 18

Before the subscriber, personally appeared elected school committee of said town, and took the oath [*or* affirmation] for said office in the form required by the 22d section of "An Act in relation to the Election and Duties of Town Officers," contained in the Digest of Laws of the State, Page 305.

A. B., Justice Peace, or Notary Public, *as the case may be.*

NOTE.—As to who may administer the oath, see the School Law, note to § V. The certificate may be made upon the back of the warrant if any, or upon a separate paper. It may be advisable also to have the engagement certified in the Record Book of the School Committee, as it may be important to preserve the evidence of their being qualified to act, and loose papers are more liable to be mislaid or lost.

Since the above was printed, by Act of October, 1846, all engagements may also be taken before any judge, senator, or town clerk.

4. *Warrant or Certificate of Election of Trustees.*

To of greeting:

This is to certify that you the said were at a meeting of the legal voters of School District No. of the town of legally notified and held and conducted according to law, at in said district, on the day of A. D. 18 , chosen to the office of Trustee [*or* Trustees] of said district, according to the provisions of the several acts relating to public schools, and are by virtue of said appointment, being first duly engaged, fully authorized to discharge all the duties, and exercise all the powers, of said office according to law.

L. S. Witness my hand, and the seal of said district, this day of A. D. 18

Clerk of said District.

NOTE.—This form will answer also for the Treasurer and Collector.

5. *Form of Certificate of engagement of Trustees, Clerks, Treasurers, Collectors, &c., of Districts.*

Before the subscriber, personally appeared A. B., and took a solemn (oath) by me administered in the following form: "You A. B. do solemnly swear (*or* affirm) that you will be true and faithful unto the State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, and support the laws and constitution thereof, and the constitution of the United States, and that you will well and truly execute the office of for the ensuing year, or until another be engaged in your room, or until you be legally discharged therefrom: so help you God: (*or* this affirmation you make and give upon peril of the penalty of perjury.)

Before me C. D.,

Justice of the Peace *or* Notary Public.

NOTE.—A Trustee can be engaged before the chairman or clerk of the school committee. But a clerk of district, treasurer or collector, must be engaged before a justice or notary, or by Act of October, 1846, any of these officers may be engaged before a senator, judge or town clerk, and by Act of June, 1847, the clerk of the district, when engaged, may engage all the other district officers.

By Act of October, 1846, § 1, the moderator and clerk may engage each other in open meeting, and the clerk's record will be evidence of it.

No form of oath is prescribed for the clerk, treasurer, or collector, but as their *duties* (§ XIII. ¶ 8,) are the same as those of the *town* officers, they must take the same oath, of which we have given the form above. See Digest, 305.

6. *Certificate to a Teacher, from a Committee.*

The School Committee of the town of hereby certify that A. B. of is qualified to teach in the public schools in said town, according to the provisions of the acts relating to public schools. This certificate to be valid within said town for one year from the date thereof, unless previously annulled by the school committee or some superior authority.

Date. In behalf of the School Committee of said town.

_____ Chairman.

7. *Certificate from an Inspector.*

I, A. B., County Inspector for the county of under the provisions of the act relating to public schools, hereby certify that C. D. of is qualified to teach in the public schools of said county, according to the provisions of said act. This certificate to be valid in and throughout said county, for the space of two years from the date thereof, and if signed by the Commissioner of Public Schools, to be valid throughout the State for three years, unless sooner annulled according to law. A. B.

Date County Inspector.

8. *Form for annulling a Certificate.*

To the Trustees of School Districts in the town of
and all others it may concern.

Whereas the School Committee of this town did on the day of A. D. 18 issue to of a certificate of qualification as a teacher in the public schools: Now know ye, that upon further examination, investigation and trial, the said has been found deficient and unqualified (*or* the said has refused to conform to the regulations made by the Committee, *as the case may be*,) and we do therefore, by the authority given us by law, declare the said certificate to be annulled and void from this date, of which all persons whose duty it is to employ teachers of public schools, are hereby requested to take notice.

By order and in behalf of the School Committee of the town of
Date. Chairman.

NOTE.—If a complaint is made against a teacher, it will in most cases be proper for him to be notified before a decision on his case. And notice of the annulling should be immediately given to the Trustees of the District, and generally, in order to prevent his being again employed. See R. 17.

9. *Memorandum of a Contract with a Teacher.*

This agreement, made this day of A. D. 18 between A. B. &c. [trustee, school committee or agent appointed by the school committee, *as the case may be*,] of on the one part, and X. Y. of on the other part, witnesses that the said X. Y. hereby agrees to teach, for the compensation herein mentioned, a district school in and for said district, [at *specify the building if desired*] for the term of months [*or* weeks] commencing and ending and the said X. Y. further engages to exert the utmost of his ability in conducting said school, and improving the education and morals of the scholars, to keep such registers and make such returns to the trustees and to the school committee as may be required of him, and in all respects to conform to all such regulations for the government of said school as may be made by the school committee of said town, and to the provisions of the laws regulating public schools. And in case the certificate of qualification of said X. Y. should be annulled, or if he shall not keep the register and make return, as aforesaid, or should violate such regulations as aforesaid,

this agreement from thenceforth shall be of no effect. And the said [committee, trustee *or* agent,] agree to pay the said X. Y. therefor at the rate of per month [*or* per week,] to be paid at the end of each month [*or* the term] out of the school money by law apportioned to said district, and the legal assessments which may be made, and in no event out of the private property of the contractor. And it is further agreed that the possession of the school house and its appurtenances shall at all times be considered as being in the trustees [*or* school committee or agent.]



Witness our hands and seals hereto the day first above mentioned.

Sealed and executed in presence of

10. *Vote of School Committee to fill a vacancy in the office of Committee or Trustee.*

Voted, that in pursuance of the authority given by law to the school committee, A. B. be and he is hereby appointed a member of this school committee [*or* trustee or one of the trustees of School District No. *as the case may be*] in the place of late deceased [*or* who has resigned, *as the case may be.*]

11. *Notice of the first meeting of a District.*

Notice is hereby given that there will be a meeting of the legal voters of School District No. in the town of at the school house in said district, [*if no school-house, then the school committee must appoint the place*] at o'clock in the noon on the day of A. D. 184 , for the purpose of organizing said district, of electing officers for said district for the ensuing year, or for the purpose of considering the expediency of building [*or* repairing] the school house in said district, and laying a tax on the rateable property of the district therefor, [*as the case may be*] and of transacting any other business which may lawfully come before said meeting.

By order and in behalf of the School Committee of said town.

Date. Chairman.

NOTE.—See the provisions of the law as to notice. As to where the notice shall be posted up, see the law. All notices must be put up five days. And care should be taken to preserve evidence that the meeting was properly notified. See R. 49.

12. *Notice of Annual District Meeting.*

Notice is hereby given to the legal voters of School District No. of the town of that the annual meeting of said district, for the choice of officers and the transaction of any other business which may lawfully come before said meeting, will be held on the day of A. D. 18 at o'clock in the noon, at the district school-house, (*if no school-house, the trustee or trustees must appoint a place.*)

Date. { Trustee or Trustees.

NOTE.—A special meeting may be called by like form, except that the *object* of all special meetings must be stated. All notices must be posted up five days. As to where posted, see law. See R. 49.

13. *Application to Trustees for a Special Meeting.*

To A. B. &c. Trustee *or* Trustees of School District No.

The subscribers respectfully request that you would call a meeting of the legal voters of School District No. as soon as the legal notice therefor can conveniently be given, for the purpose of fixing the rate of tuition to be paid by the parents, guardians or employers of children attending school—of taking measures to establish a school library—of considering the propriety of building, repairing or removing a district school-house—*or* of raising money by tax on the rateable estates of the district for the purpose of, &c. [*as the case may be.*]

Date. To be signed by at least five persons qualified to vote on the questions to come before the meeting.

14. *Commencement of District Records.*

For first meeting. At a meeting of the legal voters of School District No. of the town of called by the school committee of said town, and notified according to law,—[*here in some cases it may be advisable to state particularly how the notice was given*]—and held according to notice at the district school-house, on the day of A. D. 18 at o'clock in the noon.

For annual meeting. At the annual meeting of the legal voters of School District No. of the town of notified by

the trustees of said district according to law—[*in some cases specify as above*] and held according to notice at the district school house [*or if there be none, say* at being the place appointed by the trustees] on the day of A. D. 18 at o'clock in the noon.

For special meeting. At a meeting of the legal voters of School District No. of the town of held (in pursuance of an application to the trustees) at on and which meeting was duly notified by the trustees as the law requires.

For adjourned meeting. At a meeting of the legal voters of School District No. of the town of held according to adjournment at on

15. *Form for choosing Officers, &c.*

The following named persons were chosen to the offices set against their respective names, viz.

A. B., Moderator,

C. D., Clerk, &c.

Or instead of above, say,

Voted, that A. B. be appointed Moderator of this meeting.

Voted, that C. D. be appointed Clerk, [*or* Trustee, Treasurer, &c.] of this district [in place of O. P. resigned, &c. *if such be the case,*] to hold his office until the next annual meeting, and until his successor is qualified to act.

The clerk then, in presence of the meeting, took the oath in the form prescribed in section 22 of an act in relation to the election and duties of town officers, administered by E. F., Esq. Justice of the Peace, [*or* Public Notary, Moderator, Senator, Judge, *or* Town Clerk.] See Form 5.

It was moved by A. B. and seconded by C. D. that and after discussion, the question was put and the motion was rejected, *or* adopted.

Voted, that the Trustee [*or* Trustees] of this district be authorized to fix such a rate of tuition or assessment, for the purpose of supporting the public school in this district, the ensuing year, as they may deem necessary, subject to the conditions of § XIII. ¶ 6 of the School Law. [See Ac of October, 1846, § 6 & R. 41.]

Note. The engagement of the Moderator should also be certified as above. He can be engaged before either of the above named officers or by the Clerk. See Act of October, 1846, § 1. But by Act of January, 1847, the Moderator need not be engaged.

16. *Vote of a District prescribing mode of notifying Meetings.*

Whereas each school district has by law the power to prescribe the *manner* of notifying all future district meetings, *voted*, that hereafter all such meetings shall be notified by posting up the notices signed by the proper officers and for the time specified by law, at the following places within this district, viz., on the sign-post of the tavern now occupied by A. B., on the door of the school-house, court-house, gristmill, *or* in some conspicuous place in the shop or store now kept by A. B. &c., [*as the district may decide.*]

Note. Experience shows that notices put up in the inside of a house, in a bar-room, shop, &c. are very seldom attended to, especially if they be in writing, not printed. A sign-post, a large tree close by the travelled part of the road, the railing of a bridge, the outside of a door, &c. are the places where they would be most likely to be seen. In some cases where there is a mill, store, &c. *out* of the district to which the people of the district often resort, it would be well to put up a notice there in addition to the notices within the district.

But the power to prescribe the mode of notice does not authorize a district to dispense with notice, or to prescribe a less number of days than five.

17. *Vote of District to devolve care of School on School Committee.*

Voted, (if the School Committee of this town consent thereto and accept thereof) that all the powers and duties of this district, and the trustees thereof, relating to keeping public schools in this district, be, and they are hereby devolved on said school committee, until this district shall choose a new trustee or trustees, or shall otherwise legally direct.

Note. A copy of this vote, with a proper heading, "At a meeting of, &c." attested by the clerk, should be furnished to the committee.

18. *Vote of District to build School-house.*

Voted, that a school-house be erected at or upon for the use of the public schools in this district, and that be a committee to cause the same to be erected, the said committee first procuring the plans and specifications for the building to be approved by the Commissioner of Public Schools, or by the committee of the town, according to law, and that the said shall have full power, in the name and behalf of the district, to sign, seal and execute any contracts which may be necessary to carry out this vote, to superintend the execution of said contracts, and to do any other matter or thing which may be necessary to carry out this vote.

Note. The location, (unless before made,) must be made by the School Committee.

19. *Form of a Contract to build School-house.*

Articles of agreement made and executed on the day of A. D. 18 between A. B. of on the one part, and School District No. of the town of County of State of on the other part.

The said A. B. for himself, his heirs, executors and administrators, doth hereby covenant and agree with the School District and their assigns, that he, the said A. B., his heirs, executors and administrators, for the considerations herein expressed, shall and will, within the space of months from the date hereof, erect, build and completely cover over and finish, upon—[*here describe the lot*]—and upon such spot in said lot as said School District or their proper officers may direct, a house, out-buildings and fences, for the purpose of a district school-house and appendages, according to the plans, elevation and specifications more particularly expressed in a schedule hereto attached and signed by said parties, and which is hereby made part and parcel of this agreement; and also shall and will perform and execute all the works mentioned in the said schedule, and in the manner therein mentioned, and within the time aforesaid; and also shall and will furnish and provide at his own charge, good and sufficient materials of the sorts and quality expressed in said schedule, and all such other materials as may be necessary for the erecting and fully completing the house, out-houses and fences aforesaid, according to the plans and specifications aforesaid.

And it is further agreed between said parties, that if the said A. B., his heirs, executors or administrators, shall not within the space of time abovementioned, finish and complete all said works as aforesaid, then said School District, or their agent, may go on and complete said works, at the cost and charge of the said A. B., his heirs, executors and administrators, and may deduct the same from the compensation herein agreed to be paid for said buildings and works; and the said A. B., his heirs, executors and administrators, shall also be liable for any other damages incurred by said district from said failure, and shall also be liable to said district for any damages incurred by any other unreasonable delay in completing the works aforesaid.

And the said School District doth hereby covenant and agree with the said A. B., his heirs, executors, administrators and assigns, that upon the completion of said works as aforesaid, the said School District shall and

will pay to the said A. B., his executors, administrators or assigns, on or before the day of A. D. 18 the sum of dollars, as full compensation for his services in building and completing said works.

And it is further agreed, that if said School District or their agents shall direct any more work to be done upon or around said buildings than is herein before agreed, the said district shall pay the expense thereof in addition to the compensation aforesaid. And if said district, or their agents, shall direct to omit or diminish any part of the work herein before agreed to be done and expressed in said schedule, then there shall be deducted from said compensation, a reasonable sum, according to the proportion said work omitted may bear to the work herein first agreed to be done. And said district, or their proper agents, shall have a right to direct any additions or omissions as aforesaid, and the party of the other part shall be bound to comply with and perform the said directions.

[*Clause to refer to arbitration.*]

And lastly, it is hereby agreed between the parties aforesaid, that if any dispute shall happen between the said district or its agents, and the said A. B., his heirs, executors, administrators or assigns, in relation to the buildings herein agreed to be erected, work to be done, the payment of the money, or concerning the value and expense of any work directed to be added or omitted as herein before-mentioned, or concerning any other matter or thing whatever relating to the construction of this agreement, or the amount of any damages claimed by either party under its provisions, or for any alleged violation thereof, then in such case such dispute shall, upon the demand of either party, be left to the award and determination of three indifferent persons, one to be appointed in writing by each of said parties immediately thereafter, and a third to be appointed in writing by the two persons so first named. And the said parties hereby covenant and agree with each other, that they will severally abide by, perform and keep the award and determination of the said three persons, or any two of them, touching said disputes, provided said award be made under the hands and seals of said arbitrators, or any two of them, within from the time of said reference.

In testimony whereof, the said A. B. hath hereto set his hand and seal, and said District have hereto affixed their seal by the hands of

duly authorized for that purpose, who hath [or have] hereto also set their own hands.

Sealed and delivered in presence of

A. B. L. S.

Names of Committee or Agents. L. S.

NOTE. If the District wishes a surety for the performance of the contract of A. B., it may be taken by a bond conditioned for the performance by A. B. of the covenants and agreements in an instrument dated—[*and then briefly describe it.*]

20. *Vote of District to Tax.*

At the annual meeting of the legal voters of School District No. of the town of held at on according to a legal notice issued and signed by and posted up at for the five days previous required by law—[*or*, at a special meeting of, &c. called by, &c.]

Whereas, this district has voted to build a school-house in and for said district—[*or* to repair the district school-house,] *Voted*, that for the purpose of defraying the expense thereof, a tax of the sum of dollars be assessed upon, levied and collected from the rateable property in this district, in manner provided by law, the school committee of the town having approved of the amount of tax before mentioned for the purpose aforesaid, and that the assessment be made according to the estimate, apportionment and value affixed to said rateable property in the last assessment and tax bill made out by the town assessors—[or according to the estimate, apportionment and value which shall be affixed to said rateable estates in the assessment and tax bill of this town which shall next be completed after the date of this vote.]

NOTE. In case of laying a tax, it is important that the notice of the meeting should be legally given, and that evidence of the notice should be preserved. R. 49.

All taxes must be voted and collected according to the present school act, all the former town and local acts being repealed.

On laying a tax, or on any question relating to the expenditure of money, those only are entitled to vote who shall within the year next preceding, have paid a tax assessed upon their property in said town, of the value of one hundred and thirty-four dollars. See the School Law, § XII., ¶ 7, and the State Constitution, Art. 2, § 2

If the district vote to have their tax assessed according to the *last* town valuation, the trustee or trustees (§ XIV., ¶ 6,) will immediately proceed to make out the tax bill accordingly. If there are any complaints of wrong valuation, it would be well for the district to postpone the tax until the *next* town assessment is completed, to give the parties an opportunity to be heard before the town assessors.

If any property within the district is assessed to any person together with property out of the district, so that there is no separate valuation of that portion which may lie within the district lines, the trustees should apply in writing to one or more of the town assessors, living out of the district, stating the names of the parties so situated, (L. § XV., ¶ 2,) and the assessor will immediately issue a notice as in the Digest, page 425, and at the expiration of the time proceed to decide and apportion the valuation. The assessor should certify the facts upon the tax bill when made out. As the assessor is called upon to act in these cases solely upon business of the district, his fees should be paid by the district.

Persons must be taxed for personal property according to their residence when the assessment is made. The general rule as to taxation is that personal property shall be taxed to the owner where he resides and real estate where it lies. A few exceptions from this rule made by Statute are hereafter referred to.

If any property has changed owners since the last town valuation, it of course must be assessed to the actual owners at the time the school-tax bill is made out. This is the reasonable construction of the law.

In assessing a tax, real and personal estate must be valued separately, and put in separate columns, and the assessors must distinguish those who give in a list. Digest, page 427, § 7. They may assess it either to the owner or occupant. Digest, page 426 § 6. It should not be assessed against a person deceased. If the last town assessment is defective in any legal requisites, the district may vote to go by the next assessment, and in the mean time endeavor to have them remedied.

Meeting-houses, school-houses, academies and colleges, the land on which they stand, and burial-grounds, are exempted from taxation. Digest, p 431, § 27. Buildings on leased land are to be deemed real estate. p. 432, § 34. The custom-houses in Newport and Providence are exempt. Digest, p. 64. No poll tax can be laid for any purpose. p. 297, § 8. It has been decided in Massachusetts, that a person residing on land ceded to the United States, and where the State has only reserved a right of serving process, is not taxable. 8 Mass. Rep. 72—1 Metcalf Rep. 580. Machinery in cotton and woolen factories is to be taxed in the towns where located, in the same manner as if the owner resided there. Digest, p. 432, §. 32. and see also Digest, p. 261, § 1.

Personal property in trust, the income of which is to be paid by some other person, must be assessed to the trustee in the town where such other person resides, if in the State, but if such other person lives out of the State, then it is to be taxed where the trustee, executor, &c. resides. Digest, p. 432. § 31.

As the tax is to be collected in the same manner as town taxes, the trustees must send a copy of their tax bill when completed, signed and certified, (see Form) to the district clerk, who will deliver a copy to the treasurer, and the treasurer of the district being first engaged on his warrant, and giving bond, (see Form) will annex to it a warrant for collection, (see Form) and deliver it to the collector. The treasurer will take a receipt from the collector for the tax bill, &c.

The collector being engaged, and having given bond, will then proceed to collect the tax in the same manner as the collector of a town tax. The mode of distraining and selling personal property is pointed out in Digest, page 115 § 9. The mode of notifying and selling land for taxes is prescribed by Digest, page 430, § 22. If he find no real or personal estate, he may commit the body. Digest, p. 427, § 10. If a person is taxed for more than one parcel of land, the whole tax may be collected out of any one parcel. Digest, p. 432, § 35. If real estate is assessed to the tenant, the tenant's own real and personal estate is liable to be taken for the tax, and if that cannot be found, the land in his occupation is liable. Digest, p. 426, § 6. A tax warrant remains in force until the whole tax is collected. Digest, p. 431, § 24. The collector's fees are to be paid out of the district treasury, and will be five per cent., unless he makes a different agreement with the district. Digest, p. 431, § 25. If the collector dies or resigns, the new collector will have power to complete the collection. Digest, p. 304. § 20.

By Act of October, 1 846, any person committed to jail for a tax, rate or assessment, may swear out in the same manner as if he was committed for town taxes. And any person assessed for tuition may take the poor debtor's oath before being committed.

The uniform, arms, ammunition and equipments of an officer or private in the militia, cannot be distrained for taxes. Digest, p. 510, § 54. And household furniture, family stores, tools, &c. are in some cases protected from distress by Digest, p. 114, § 8.

Owners of real estate or buildings sold for taxes, may redeem within six months after sale, on paying to the purchaser the amount paid therefor, with twenty per cent. in addition. Digest, p. 433, § 36.
See TAX in the Index.

21. *Form of a Tax Bill.*

Assessment of the taxes upon the rateable estates in School District No. of the town, &c. made by the trustees thereof, according to law, this day of A. D. 18 for the purpose of raising the sum of dollars, according to a vote of said district, passed on the day of A. D. 18

Names.	Real.	Personal.	Total.	Tax.

NOTE. The trustees should sign the tax bill. If any of the real estate lies on the district line, and the town assessors are applied to, to value that portion of it lying in the district, it would be well to have them make a certificate at the foot of the tax bill, that they have assessed such property according to law, and sign it.

22. *District Treasurer's Bond.*

Know all men, that we, A. B. of County of and State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, as principal, and C. D. of County of and State aforesaid, as surety, [*surety or sureties to the satisfaction of the district,*] are firmly held and bound unto the school district, No. of the town of and State aforesaid, in the full sum of [*to be fixed by the district*] to be paid to the said school district, or their assigns, to which we hereby jointly and severally bind ourselves, our several and respective heirs, executors and administrators. Sealed and dated the day of A. D. 18

The condition of the foregoing obligation is, that whereas the said A. B. was, at a meeting of said school district holden appointed treasurer of said district. Now, if he shall faithfully discharge the duties of said office during his continuance therein, and at the expiration of his office he or his executors or administrators shall exhibit a true account, if required, and deliver over to his successor, or the order of the district, all

books, papers and moneys belonging to the district in his hands, then the above obligation is to be void, otherwise to remain in force.

Executed in presence of

L. S.

L. S.

[NOTE. It may be advisable for the treasurer to receive a formal certificate of appointment or warrant, and then his engagement can be indorsed upon it. See the form of oath F. 5.]

23. *District Collector's Bond.*

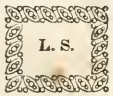
" Know all men, that we, A. B. of State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations as principal, and C. D. of as surety, are firmly held and bound unto E. F. of Treasurer of School District No. in the town of and state aforesaid, in the full sum of (*to be fixed by the district, not exceeding double the tax*) to be paid to said his successors in said office or assigns, to which we jointly and severally bind ourselves, our several and respective heirs, executors and administrators.

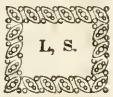
Sealed and dated this day of A. D. 18

The condition of this obligation is, that whereas the said A. B. was, at a meeting of the legal voters of School District No. of the town of at a meeting duly notified, appointed collector of the rates and taxes assessed and to be assessed in, by, and upon said district, and the said A. B. has accepted said office: and whereas said district on the day of A. D. voted that a tax of be assessed on all the rateable property in said district, for the purpose of and said tax was by the trustee *or* trustees of said district and by E. F. &c. town assessors, *if such was the case*, legally assessed, and the treasurer of said district hath issued his warrant to said collector, with said rate bill annexed, for the collection of said tax, the receipt of which said ratebill and warrant is hereby acknowledged, and by which said warrant, said tax is to be collected and paid over, on or before the day of A. D. 18 Now if the said A. B. shall with diligence and fidelity, levy and collect, as far as may be done, all the

taxes that have been, or may be, so committed to him for collection, during his continuance in office, and he, his heirs, executors or administrators shall at all times on proper demand, render an account and pay over all the proceeds of such collections to the treasurer of said district, or his successors in office, according to the directions contained in the warrants for their collection, then this obligation is to be void, otherwise to remain in force.

Executed in presence of





[NOTE. The treasurer should be engaged and give bond before the collector gives bond to him. As to engagement of collector, see F. 5. A district may elect a collector at their regular meeting for choice of officers, or they may elect one at a special meeting to collect a particular tax. See Digest, page 304 § 19, and page 432, § 29.]

24. *Warrant to collect a Tax.*

To A. B. Collector of taxes of School District No. of the town of County of and State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations,—GREETING:—

You, having been appointed collector of taxes for said district, are hereby, in the name of said State, authorized and required to proceed and collect the tax specified in the annexed rate-bill according to law, and to pay the same to me or to my successor in office on or before the day of next; and for so doing this shall be your sufficient warrant.

Given under my hand and seal at this day of A. D. 18

C. D. L. S.

Treasurer of said School District.

NOTE. The collector should also receive from the district clerk a warrant or formal certificate of election, which may be in substance according to the form, No. 4. And then his engagement can be certified upon the back.

The district should approve the sum of sureties of the bond, and the clerk should certify the fact thereon.

25. *Form of Tax Collector's Deed.*

To all to whom these presents may come, I, A. B. of county of and State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Collector of Taxes of School District No. in said town, send Greeting:

Whereas the said school district, at a meeting duly notified, and held on the day of , A. D. 184 , voted that a tax of dollars be assessed and levied on the rateable property in said district, for the purpose of , and said tax was afterwards assessed according to law, and the tax-bill in due form delivered to me the said Collector, with a warrant attached thereto, signed by the Treasurer of said District, requiring me to proceed according to law and collect the said tax, and pay over the same to the said Treasurer, or his successor in office, on or before , and whereas C. D. of neglected to pay the tax assessed against him, and expressed in the said tax bill, amounting to the sum of dollars, and in consequence thereof, I did, on the day of , levy said warrant upon a certain lot or tract of land belonging to said C. D. in said district, and did advertise the same for sale according to law, at two [*or more*] public places in said town, for twenty days previous to sale, [and also in the , a newspaper printed in] and on the day of , A. D. 18 , at o'clock in the noon, on the premises, being the time and place appointed. I proceeded to sell at auction so much of said land as was necessary to satisfy said tax and the incidental expenses, and E. F. of was the highest bidder therefor.

Now, know ye, that in consideration of the sum of dollars, being the amount of said tax and expenses paid me, by the said E. F., I, the said Collector, do hereby give, grant, bargain, sell and convey unto the said E. F., his heirs and assigns, the following described tract of land, situated in the district and town aforesaid, containing acres, [*more or less*] and bounded [*describe*,] or however otherwise bounded, with all [*buildings*] and appurtenances, being so much of said land as the said C. D. levied on as was necessary to satisfy said tax and expenses. To have and to hold the same to said E. F., his heirs and assigns forever subject to the right of redemption provided by law. And I, the said A. B. for myself, my heirs, executors and administrators, do covenant with said

E. F., his heirs and assigns, that I have given bond, and have advertised said property as herein before stated, and have complied with the terms of the laws regulating the collecting of taxes, in respect to said sale, as herein before stated.

Witness my hand and seal this day of A. D. 18

Signed, sealed and delivered in presence of

A. B. L. S.

Town of, &c. A. D. 18 Before me the subscriber, appeared A. B. Collector of Taxes of school district No. , of the town of , and acknowledged the foregoing to be his free act and deed, and his hand and seal to be thereto affixed.

O. P.

Justice of the Peace, Notary Public *or* Town Clerk.

NOTE. In case of unimproved lands owned by persons out of the state and also of improved lands where neither the owner nor occupant lives in the state, notice of the sale must be given twenty days in a newspaper. Digest p. 428 § 13. The purchaser under a tax collector's deed should see that the law has been complied with, and that his evidence of advertising is preserved.

26. *Form of Rate-bill for Tuition, &c.*

Rate-bill or assessment of rates of tuition against the parents, guardians and employers, sending children to the district school, in School District No. of the town of for the term of school commencing and ending voted by the said district and made out this day of A. D. 18 towards the expenses of tuition, fuel and other expenses.

Names of persons sending to school.	No. sent.	Time sent.	Assessment

Signed A. B. C. D. E. F. } *Trustees.*

NOTE. This rate-bill is to be collected in the same manner as the tax-bill, and the same forms will answer with a little variation to suit the case. Any poor parent liable for tuition, may, if the district or trustees refuse to exempt him, take the poor debtor's oath, either before or after being committed to jail. R. 41.

27. *Form of a Lease.*

These articles of agreement made this day of A. D. 18 witness that A. B. of doth hereby demise and let unto the School District No. of said town (describe the room or building) with the appurtenances, in consideration of the rents and covenants by said school district herein mentioned to be performed, to have and hold the same to said school district and their assigns for the space of year, commencing on the day of A. D. 18 and ending on the day of A. D. 18 for the purpose of keeping a district school therein, and holding such schools or lectures or other literary meetings, or meetings of business, as the school committee or the officers of said district may deem advisable for promoting the cause of education. And the said district agrees to pay therefor the sum of per annum as rent, and at that rate for any less time than a year, the payment to be made to the said A. B., his heirs or assigns, at his residence, on the last day of the year, [*or* on the last day of each year in the term,] without any notice or demand therefor [*provisions about repairs, loss by fire &c, may be here inserted.*] Witness the hand and seal of the said A. B. and the seal of the said district hereto affixed by by said district duly authorized, the day and year first above mentioned.

Sealed and executed in presence of

L. S.

L. S.

28. *Power of Attorney to take a Lease.*

NOTE. The District may authorize a person to execute this lease for them by a vote as follows: "Voted that the Trustees of the District [or Treasurer] be and they are hereby fully empowered to hire a building for the purpose of a schoolhouse for the district, [*here specify the building and fix the time and conditions or leave them at discretion*] and to make and execute the necessary contracts therefor, and to seal, deliver and acknowledge the same in the name and behalf of the District." If the lease is for a year or less time, it may save trouble to take the lease in the name of the trustees themselves. If the above is to be acknowledged, see the form of acknowledgment to No. 31.

29. *Deed to a School District.*

Know all men that I, A. B. of in the State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, in consideration of the sum of paid me by C. D. Treasurer of School District No. in the town

of and State aforesaid, the receipt of which I acknowledge and am therewith fully satisfied and paid, [*if a gift say* in consideration of my desire to aid and assist in diffusing the benefits of a good common school education among the inhabitants of School District No. &c. *as the grantor pleases*] do hereby give, grant, enfeoff, convey and confirm unto said School District and their assigns, a certain lot of land situated in said town of [*describe*] or however otherwise bounded, with all the appurtenances and privileges thereto belonging, to have and hold the same forever to the said school district [and their assigns, *but if there is a desire to prevent the lot ever being used for any other purpose, omit assigns and say* for the purpose of maintaining thereon a district school-house and its appurtenances, for the benefit of the district school of said district, and for no other use or purpose whatever.] And I the said A. B. do hereby for myself, my heirs, executors and administrators, covenant and engage to and with said school district [and their assigns] that the premises are free of all incumbrances, that I have good right to sell and convey as aforesaid, and that I, my heirs, executors and administrators shall and will forever warrant, secure and defend the premises to said school district [and their assigns, *or* to and for the purposes aforesaid,] against the lawful claims of all persons whatsoever. And I, E. F. wife of the said A. B. for the consideration paid my said husband, hereby release unto said school district [and their assigns] all my right of dower in the premises. [*If the premises be under mortgage a release may be here inserted.* And I, G. H. of in consideration of the sum of paid me by to my full satisfaction, do hereby give, grant, bargain, sell, assign and convey unto said school district [and their assigns,] all the right, title and interest which I have in the premises by virtue of any mortgage deed thereof, or of any other claim or title whatsoever.] In witness whereof we have hereto set our hands and seals this day of A. D. 18

Signed, sealed and delivered, in presence of

L. S.

L. S.

L. S.

State of county of town of
A. D. 18 This day personally appeared before me
and acknowledged the foregoing instrument to be voluntary act and deed and hand and seal to be thereto affixed.

Before me, O. P., Justice of the Peace, Notary Public *or* Town Clerk, (*if executed in Rhode Island.*)

NOTE. If the land belong to a married woman, her name should be inserted as one of the grantors, and the deed altered accordingly. She must acknowledge separately from her husband. Use the words of the law in the certificate of acknowledgment. See Digest, p. 259. § 10.

30. *Vote appointing an Attorney to sell land belonging to the District.*

At a meeting of the legal voters of School District No. of the Town of &c. notified as the law requires, and held at on the day of A. D. 18

Voted, That A. B. Treasurer of this School District, be and he is hereby appointed the agent and attorney of the district, to sell at his discretion a certain lot of land, situated in and belonging to the district, containing bounded with the buildings and appurtenances, and with full power to affix the seal of the district to a deed or deeds conveying the same [*with covenants of warranty or not, as the district may vote,*] and in the name of the district to acknowledge and deliver the same, and to receive the purchase money, and give a full discharge therefor.

A true copy of record, witness

E. F. *Clerk of said District.*

31. *District Land Deed.*

Know all men, that the School District No. of the Town of County State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, in consideration of the sum of paid to A. B. Treasurer of said District, to and for the use of said District, by M. N. of the receipt of which is hereby acknowledged, does hereby give, grant, bargain, sell and convey unto the said M. N. his heirs and assigns, all the right, title and interest of said School District in and to a lot of land situated in said district, containing bounded or however otherwise bounded, with all [buildings

and] appurtenances, being the same lot conveyed to said district by deed by H. I. To have and to hold the same to said M. N. his heirs and assigns forever. In testimony whereof, the said School District have hereto affixed their seal, by the hands of said A. B. their treasurer, duly appointed for that purpose at a legal meeting of said district, and the said treasurer hath hereto affixed his own hand this day of A. D. 18

A. B. Treasurer, as aforesaid. L. S.

Sealed and delivered in presence of

Acknowledgement.

State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, County of Town of A. D. 18 The School District No. of said town, by A. B. their treasurer and attorney for that purpose, by vote of said district appointed, acknowledged the foregoing to be their voluntary act and deed, and their seal to be thereto affixed; and the said A. B. Treasurer and Attorney as aforesaid, also acknowledged his own hand affixed thereto, and that the same was the voluntary act and deed of himself and of the said district.

Before me P. Q.

Justice of the Peace, *or* Notary Public, *or* Town Clerk.

NOTE. It will seldom, if ever, be advisable for a district to give any thing more than a quit-claim deed. If they wish to insert any warranty, it would be best to consult a well informed attorney.

32. *Order for Money.*

To A. B. Town Treasurer of the town of

Pay to C. D. or order, the sum of it being for keeping a district school in School District No. in this town.

Date. By order of the School Committee of the town.

E. F. *Chairman.*

[NOTE. It will be the safest course, in all cases, to let the money remain in the hands of the Town Treasurer, and to give orders for it no faster than it is actually expended.]

33. *Notice of Appeal.*

To the School Committee of the town of

[Trustees of School District No. in the town of

Inspector, *or as the case may be.*]

I hereby notify you, that in conformity with the provisions of the laws regulating public schools, I appeal to A. B. Commissioner of Public Schools, from [*here specify the vote or decision of the committee, trustees, district or inspector which is complained of.*]

Date. Signed

C. D

A copy of this notice should be immediately served upon the clerk of the committee, clerk of the district, or upon the trustee, trustees or inspector who have done the act complained of. And a notice of the appeal should be immediately forwarded to the Commissioner, which may be as follows:

To A. B. Commissioner of Public Schools of the State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations.

Whereas the school committee, [inspector, trustees, or school district, No. of the town of &c.] did at a meeting on the day of A. D. pass a vote—[*here copy or insert the substance as nearly as can be procured.*] I, the subscriber, according to law, do hereby appeal to you from said vote or decision, and claim that the same may be reversed. [*Here state plainly and briefly the reasons.*]

Signed,

The Commissioner will immediately appoint a time for hearing the case, and notify the parties thereof. If the nominal party as often happens, be not the party interested, care should be taken to notify the latter as well as the former.

34 *Vote of District to establish a secondary school under* § XVIII.

Voted, that this district will unite with School District No. of this town—[*or* in the adjoining town of] in the establishment of a secondary school, according to the provisions of § XVIII of An Act relating to Public Schools, passed June session, A. D. 1845, for the common benefit of both said districts; provided said school district No. shall also give their consent thereto—[within from this date]—and that the clerk of the district furnish a certified copy of this vote to said school district No. and also to the school committee that —[if said district consents]—they may take the necessary measures for establishing said school.

35. *Vote of school committee to form joint district under* § XIX.

Voted, [the school committee of the town of concurring herewith] that a joint district be formed according to the provisions of the acts relating to public schools, to consist of school district No. of this town, and school district No. of said town of and that said districts shall constitute a joint district from the time that the school committee of said town of shall concur herewith—[*or if they have already passed a similar vote say* from and after the passage of this vote.]

Voted further, that the chairman be authorized, in conjunction with the school committee of said town of to cause notices to be posted up—[*in one or more places in each of the two districts—specify them*] for the first meeting of said joint district to be held at on at o'clock in the noon [*or* to be held at such time and place as he may agree upon with the school committee of said town of] and that the clerk of the committee furnish a certified copy of this vote to the school committee of the said town of

NOTE. A notice signed by the chairman of each committee should be posted up in one or more places in each district. § XIX. After trustees are elected, they will notify the subsequent meetings according to § XII.

36. *Vote prescribing form of District Seal.*

Voted, that the clerk of the district cause to be made a seal for the use of the district, with the figure of engraven thereon, and the letters or inscription around its margin, and that the same is hereby adopted and declared to be the common seal of this corporation, and shall be kept by the clerk of the district.

NOTE. Every town, district, or other corporation, should have a common seal with a suitable device; but if they have no regular seal, any seal that may be affixed to any instrument by their authority, for instance a piece of paper attached by a wafer, will be considered to be their seal.

37. *Appointment of a County Inspector.*

To A. B. of , in the County of

Know all men that I, C. D. Commissioner of Public Schools, of the State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, do by the authority vested

in me by law, appoint you the said A. B. to be County Inspector of the Public Schools, in the County of , and you are therefore hereby authorized to examine teachers, and give them the certificates of qualification prescribed by law; to visit and inspect the public schools in said county, and to report their state and condition to the Commissioner, under such instructions as may from time to time be prescribed by said Commissioner, and generally to do and perform all acts which a County Inspector may do and perform under the provisions of the Laws relating to Public Schools,

Given under my hand at , this day of , A. D. 18

C. D.

Commissioner of Public Schools.

38. *Form of District Return prescribed by Commissioner of Public Schools.*

[NOTE.—*When there are separate Schools kept at different times in the year, a separate Return is to be made for each School, but the items included in the divisions* I., II., VIII. *and* IX., *need not be returned but once a year.*]

***RETURN** respecting the Public Schools in District No. in Town of for Term commencing 184 and ending 184 .*

I.—NAME, SIZE, POPULATION AND PECUNIARY RESOURCES OF THE DISTRICT.

Local or neighborhood name,

Territorial extent or size of district, length breadth

Number of *families* residing in district

" " engaged in agriculture trade or shop-keeping mechanic shops

" " " factories or mills navigation

" " " clergymen lawyers physicians

Number of *inhabitants* of all ages Do. under 16 years Do. between 5 and 15

" registered Voters Do. tax-paying Voters

Amount of State and Town money actually expended during the present year

" of valuation of taxable property, in the district,

" money raised *by tax* during the present year, on property of district,

to purchase or build school-house, site, &c.

" to repair or furnish old house,

" to purchase maps, globes, and other apparatus,

" to purchase library,

" for wages of teachers, for teacher's board, for fuel,

Aggregate amount of money raised *by tax on the property* of the district, during the year, for all purposes,

Aggregate amount raised by rate, or tuition-bill, for teacher's wages and board, fuel, and other purposes, during the year,

Amount given by individuals for any purpose during the year,

Amount received from income of any land or fund, during the year,

Aggregate amount of money expended for all purposes for the school year, ending May,

II.—SCHOOL-HOUSE.

Place where the School is kept—in school-house,

in building built or used for other purposes,

Date when the school-house was built, first cost,

When last thoroughly repaired, and at what expense

By whom now owned, by district town, proprietors,

Furnished with a suitable play-ground and out building

Material and condition of the building—material condition, (good, ordinary, bad,)

Provided with scraper, mat, water-pail and cup, sink, basin, and towel,

" " old broom, for feet, pegs, hooks, or shelves, broom and dust-brush,

Number of school-rooms, and size of each, length, width, height,

Arrangements for desks,

" seats,

" ventilation,

" warming,

Provided with wood-shed, or shelter for fuel, shovel and tongs, &c. thermometer,

Provided with bell, with globe, with clock, hand-bell for teacher,

Do. with blackboard, the size, (if any,) Do. with map of Rhode-Island,

Do. with outline maps, Do. with geometrical solids.

III.—ATTENDANCE, LENGTH OF SCHOOL TERM.

No. of families who sent children to the School—belonging to District,

Do. " " from out of the District,

No. of scholars, of all ages, registered during term—belonging to District, boys, girls,

Do. " " from out of the District, boys, girls,

No. of scholars over 15 years of age, boys, girls, Do. under 5 years, boys, girls,

Length of School-term in half days, weeks, (10 *half days*,) months, (4 *weeks*.)

No. of scholars who attended *three fourths* of the term and more, *one half*,

Do. " " *less than one half* *less than one fourth*,

Average daily attendance of the School during the term,

No. of scholars belonging to the District who attended school in other districts, or towns,

No. of children, over 4 and under 16 years of age, who attended no school, public or private, during the term.

IV.—STUDIES AND CLASSES.

No. of scholars who commenced this term in Alphabet,

Do. who attended during the whole term to Primer or Spelling-Book, exclusively,

No. of scholars in Spelling, (not including scholars in Spelling-Book,) exclusively, No. of classes in

No. of scholars in Reading, (*not including scholars in Spelling-Book*,) No. of classes in,

No. of scholars in Geography, No. of classes in, No. who draw maps,

No. of scholars in Grammar, No. of classes in,

No. of scholars in History of the United States, No. of classes in,

No. of scholars in General History, No. of classes in,

No. of scholars in Etymology, or analysis of language, No. of classes in,

No. of scholars in Definitions, No. of classes in,

No. of scholars in Mental Arithmetic, No. of classes in,

No. of scholars in Written Arithmetic, No. of classes in,

No. of scholars attending to Penmanship, No. of classes in,

No. of scholars in Book-Keeping, No. of classes in,

No. of scholars in Algebra, No. of classes in,

No. of scholars in Geometry, No. of classes in,

No. of scholars in Natural Philosophy, No. of classes in,

No. of scholars in Physiology, No. of classes in,

No. of scholars attending to Drawing, Do. Composition,

Do. " Declamation, Do. who engage in Vocal Music,

No. of scholars in other studies, specifying the same,

No. of scholars *not* provided with all books necessary in the studies pursued by them,

Do. *not* provided with a slate,

V.—BOOKS.

Name of each kind of Text-Book used in the School, and the number of copies of each kind,

Dictionary,

Primer,

Spelling-Book,

Reading,

Penmanship and Book-Keeping,

Mental Arithmetic,

Written Arithmetic

Geography,

Grammar,

History,

Other studies,

VI.—TEACHER.

Name and age of teacher,

Place (*town and state*,) of birth,

Do. do. do. residence,

Date of certificate, and by whom signed,

Number of terms, or years of experience as a teacher in any school,

Do. do. in this school before the present term,

Compensation per month, in money, Aggregate amount in money for term,

Is the teacher boarded by the District, in addition to his money wages?

Or, does he board himself out of his wages?

Arrangement for board—board round At one place,

If boarded by District, the amount paid, in *money*, for board,

VII.—SUPERVISION, OR VISITATION.

Number of visits from Trustees, From Town Committee,

Do. from County Inspector,

from Parents and others, (*not school officers,*)

VIII.—PRIVATE SCHOOLS, LYCEUMS, &c.

Number and grade of Private or Select School kept in the District during the term,

Number of pupils attending, Rate of Tuition per term,

Name of any Lyceum, Debating Society, or Library, with date of establishment, number of members, books, &c.

IX.—NAMES OF OFFICERS OF THE DISTRICT.

Trustees,

Clerk,

Treasurer,

Collector,

To the School Committee of the Town of

We, the Trustees of School District, Number , in said town, in conformity with the "Act relating to Public Schools," do certify that the foregoing form of District Return, prescribed by the Commissioner of Public Schools, has been filled up with due diligence and accuracy; and that the money designated "teacher's money," received from the Treasurer of the town for the year previous to the first day of May, 184 , was applied to the wages of teachers, and for no other purpose whatever.

Dated at 184 .

} *Trustees.*

39. *Specimens of Rules and Regulations to be adopted by cshool committees for the governmet of Publia Schools.*

Rules and Regulations for the Government of the Public Schools in the Town of Smithfield. Adopted by School Committee, September, 1846.

PREAMBLE.

Teachers and candidates for teachers in the public schools, previous to entering upon their engagements, should consider it of great importance to become familiar with some of the most approved plans of teaching and governing a school; and should endeavor, as far as possible, to possess themselves of definite ideas in regard to the solemn duties and responsibilities of their profession.

And in order to aid and assist them in establishing a uniform and systematic course of instruction and discipline, the committee would respectfully submit the following

RULES.

1. All the teachers of the public schools are required to be at their respective school-rooms and to ring the bell from ten to fifteen minutes before the time of commencing the school in the morning and in the afternoon, and they shall require the pupils as they enter the room to be seated in an orderly manner, andprepare for study.

2. The bell shall again be struck or the hand-bell rung, *precisely* at the specified time for beginning the school, as a *signal* for commencing the exercises—previous to which all the scholars are expected to be present and to have made all needful preparations for carrying on the business of the school, it order to prevent all unnecessary movement after the exercises commence.

3. All the public schools shall be opened in the morning by reading a portion of the Scriptures, which may be done by the teacher alone, or in connection with the older pupils—the whole school being required at the same time to suspend all other subjects and to give proper and respectful attention; and this exercise may be followed by prayer or not, at the discretion of the teacher.

4. Every scholar who comes in after the second bell rings, must present a satisfactory excuse; and all who cannot do so, shall be considered delinquent and marked tardy on the teacher's register, subject to examination by parents, trustees, and school committee.

5. No teacher shall permit whispering or talking in school, or allow the scholars to leave or change their seats, or to have communication with each other in school time, without permission, but shall strive to maintain that good order and thorough discipline which are absolutely essential to the welfare of the school.

6. It shall be the duty of teachers to guard the conduct of scholars, not only in the hours of school, but at recess, and on their way to and from school, and to extend at all times a watchful care over their morals and manners, endeavoring to inculcate those virtues which lay a sure foundation for future usefulness and happiness.

7. The government and discipline of the school should be of a mild and parental character. The teacher should use his best exertions to bring scholars to obedience and a sense of duty, by mild measures and kind influences; and in cases where corporeal punishment seems absolutely necessary, it should be inflicted with judgment and discretion, and in general not in presence of the school.

8. Teachers should ever avoid those low, degrading and improper forms of punishment, such as tying up scholars' hands and feet, compelling them to hold a weight in their hands with their arms extended, pinching, pulling and wringing their ears, cheeks and arms, and other similar modes, which are sometimes used, as the committee are decidedly of the opinion that a judicious teacher will find other methods of governing more consistent and more effectual.

9. In case of obstinate disobedience or wilful violation of order, a teacher may suspend a pupil from school for the time being, by informing the parents or guardians and school committee thereof, and re-admit him on satisfactory evidence of amendment; or such pupils may, at the discretion of the teacher, be referred directly to the committee, to be dealt with as their judgment and legal authority shall dictate.

10. The teachers shall classify the pupils of their respective schools according to their age and attainments, irrespective of rank or wealth, and shall assign them such lessons as seem best adapted to their capacities, and render them all possible aid and assistance, without distinction and without partiality.

11. For the purpose of preserving that system and order so essential to a well regulated school, and securing to the pupils a thorough knowledge of the subjects pursued, there should be a specified time for every exercise and a certain portion of time devoted to it, and in no case should any one recitation interfere with the time appropriated to another; and whatever the exercise may be, it should receive, for the time, the immediate and, as far as practicable, the exclusive attention of the teacher.

12. No child under the age of four years shall be received as a scholar in a district school, unless there be an assistant teacher or a primary department.

13. Exercises in declamation and composition shall be practiced by the older and more advanced pupils, at the judgment of the teacher, under the advice of the committee.

14. Singing may be encouraged, and, as far as practicable, taught in all the schools, not only for its direct intellectual and moral uses, but as a healthy exercise of the lungs, an agreeable recreation to the pupils, and an auxiliary in good government.

15 Needle-work shall be allowed in the primary schools.

16. The teacher may employ the older scholars, under his direction, in the management of the school, when it can be done without disadvantage to them or to the good order of the school.

17. No teacher shall use or encourage the use of any other books than those recommended by the committee, without their approbation.

18. There shall be a recess of at least fifteen minutes in the middle of every half day; but the primary schools may have a recess of ten minutes every hour: at the discretion of the teacher.

19. It shall be the duty of teachers to see that fires are made in cold weather, in their respective school rooms, at a seasonable hour to render them warm and comfortable by school time; to take care that their rooms are properly swept and dusted; and that a due regard to neatness and order is observed, both in and around the school house.

20. As pure air of a proper temperature is indispensible to health and comfort, teachers cannot be too careful in giving attention to these things. If the room has no ventilator, the doors and windows should be opened before and after school, to permit a free and healthful circulation of air; and the temperature should be regulated by a thermometer suspended, five or six feet from the floor, in such a position as to indicate as near as possible the average temperature, and should be kept about 65 degrees Fahrenheit.

21. The teachers shall take care that the school houses, tables, desks, and apparatus in the same, and all the public property entrusted to their charge, be not cut, scratched, marked, or injured and defaced in any manner whatever. And it shall be the duty of the teachers to give prompt notice to one or more of the trustees, of any repairs that may be needed.

22. Every teacher shall keep a record of all the recitations of every class; and of the manner in which every member of the class shall acquit himself in his recitation—using figures or otherwise to mark degrees of merit. Also, every act of disobedience or violation of order, shall be noted; and the registers shall be at all times subject to the inspection of parents, trustees, and school committee.

23. The following shall be the construction of teachers' engagements, unless otherwise specified in the written contract. They shall teach six hours every day, including the recess, and shall divide the day into two sessions, with at least one hour intermission. They shall teach every day in the week, except Saturday and Sunday, and four weeks for a month; and they may dismiss the school on the 4th of July, on Christmas, and days of public fast and thanksgiving, and one day out of every month for the purpose of attending a Teachers' Institute, or for visiting schools.

PUPILS.

24. Good morals being of the first importance, and essential to their progress in useful knowledge, the pupils are strictly enjoined to avoid all vulgarity and profanity, falsehood and deceit, and every wicked and disgraceful practice; to conduct themselves in a sober, orderly and decent manner, both in and out of school; to be diligent and attentive to their studies; to treat each other politely and kindly in all their inter-

course: to respect and obey all orders of their teachers in relation to their conduct and studies, and to be punctual and constant in their daily attendance.

25. Every pupil who shall, *accidentally* or *otherwise*, injure any school property, whether fences, gates, trees or shrubs, or any building or any part thereof; or break any window glass, or injure or destroy any instrument, apparatus or furniture belonging to the school, shall be liable to pay all damages.

26. Every pupil who shall any where, on or around the school premises, use or write any profane or unchaste language, or shall draw any obscene pictures or representations, or cut, mark, or otherwise *intentionally* deface any school furniture or buildings, or any property whatsoever belonging to the school estate, shall be punished in proportion to the nature and extent of the offense, and shall be liable to the action of the civil law.

27. No scholar of either sex shall be permitted to enter any part of the yard or buildings appropriated to the other, without the teacher's permission.

28. Smoking and chewing tobacco in the school house or upon the school premises, are strictly prohibited.

29. The scholars shall pass through the streets on their way to and from school in an orderly and becoming manner; shall clean the mud and dirt from their feet on entering the school room; and take their seats in a quiet and respectful manner, as soon as convenient after the first bell rings; and shall take proper care that their books, desks, and the floor around them, are kept clean and in good order

30. It is expected that all the scholars who enjoy the advantages of public schools, will give proper attention to the *cleanliness* of their persons, and the neatness and decency of their clothes—not only for the moral effect of the habit of neatness and order, but that the pupils may be at all times prepared, both in conduct and external appearance—to receive their friends and visitors in a respectable manner; and to render the school room pleasant, comfortable and happy for teachers and scholars.

31. No scholar should try to hide the misconduct of his schoolfellows, or screen them from justice: but it shall be the duty of every pupil who knows of any bad conduct, or violation of order, committed without the knowledge of the instructor, to the disgrace and injury of the school, to inform the teacher thereof, and to do all in his power to discourage and discountenance improper behavior in others, and to assist the teacher in restoring good order and sustaining the reputation of the school.

32. Every teacher shall keep a copy of these rules and regulations posted up in the school room, and shall cause the same to be read aloud in school at least once in every month; and in case of any difficulty in carrying out these regulations, or in the government and discipline of the school, it shall be the duty of the teacher to apply immediately to the committee for advice and direction.

Note.—The above rules adopted by the School Committee of Smithfield, include nearly all the subjects upon which regulations will need to be made in country districts. School committees of other towns can modify them to suit the circumstances of their schools. Other rules will be needed whenever there is a division of the school into primary and secondary, or other important deviations from the district system.

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PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

We shall devote this number of the Journal to a notice of such official documents as have been forwarded to us, during the year, and which throw light on the progress of education in the United States.

CONNECTICUT.

Prize Essay on the Necessity and Means of Improving the Common Schools of Connecticut. [*By Prof. Noah Porter, Jr., Yale College.*] Hartford: Case, Tiffany & Co., 1847.

Annual Report of the Superintendent [*Hon. Seth P. Beers*] *of Common Schools of Connecticut, for* 1847.

Annual Report of the Commissioner of the School Fund, for 1847.

Reports and Pamphlets on the Plan of a Public High School in the First School Society of Hartford.

Connecticut School Manual, Edited by Rev. Merrill Richardson. Vol. I, from January 1, 1846, *to December* 1847. Published Monthly by Case, Tiffany & Co., Hartford: Terms, 50 cents per annum.

Report of the Joint Standing Committee of Education on the Establishment of Schools for Teachers, made to the General Assembly, May Session, 1847.

Report of the Joint Standing Committee of Education on Schools of Agriculture and the Arts. General Assembly, May Session, 1847.

These documents show a healthful state of feeling in Connecticut, and are the first fruits of the efforts recently put forth to place Connecticut again in the front rank of states which are aiming to make the Common Schools common in their original and true acceptation—*common because good enough for the best and cheap enough for the poorest.*

The Report of the Superintendent brings distinctly to the consideration of the legislature the low condition of the common schools in many particulars, as presented in the official communications of committees who are personally acquainted with the facts which they state. These communications are arranged in the appendix under appropriate heads,

so that testimonies from different towns in the state are brought to bear on a given subject of inquiry. The superintendent also urges with directness and clearness the necessity of doing something more than is yet done for the improvement of school houses, the better supervision of the schools, and the education of teachers by means of a Normal School and Teachers' Institutes.

"The plan of a Normal School or Teachers' Seminary embraces a thorough course of instruction in the studies pursued in common schools under competent teachers, with reference to teaching the same thing to others. This last includes the art of teaching, or a knowledge of human nature and of the human mind, and of the order in which its several faculties should be called into exercise; of the best motives by which good habits of study can be cultivated in the young; of the arrangement and classification of scholars, and of the best means and appliances for securing obedience and order, and for keeping alive an interest in the daily exercises of the school. To accomplish these things thoroughly there must be all the necessary apparatus for illustration and experiment in reference to the studies pursued, and a model school where the future teacher may, as it were, serve an apprenticeship in the workshop of education. The Normal School should do for the teacher what the directions of the master-workman, and the usual term and duties of apprenticeship do for the future mechanic; and the law school, or the medical school, or the theological seminary, does for the professions of law, medicine or theology. It should give a thorough knowledge of what is to be done, and the practical skill how to do it. We have teachers who have acquired this knowledge and skill, but in too many instances they have acquired the same by experience and experiments in the school-room, at the expense of time lost, tempers ruined, and minds distorted, of the children of the State. The Normal School affords an opportunity to such persons as have the requisite natural qualifications, of acquiring the knowledge necessary for the highest success, without subjecting the schools to the ruinous waste of time and mind to which they are now exposed."

After a brief notice of the successive steps in the history of the Normal Schools in Massachusets and New York, the Superintendent concludes thus.

"Surely Connecticut, which was the first seriously to agitate the subject, ought not to be the last to avail herself of the wise suggestions of her own citizens, and the experience of two such States as New York and Massachusetts. If the legislature would pledge the means to sustain the annual expense of one such school on an economical scale, for a period long enough to give the institution a fair trial, it is believed that there are towns in which it should be located, or individuals, ready to provide the necessary buildings, furniture and apparatus."

We shall publish the Prize Essay entire, because it indicates clearly and eloquently the direction in which the friends of school improvements should push their efforts under similar circumstances.

PRIZE ESSAY

ON THE NECESSITY AND MEANS OF IMPROVING THE COMMON SCHOOLS OF CONNECTICUT.

THERE was a time when the Common Schools of Connecticut were esteemed the best in the world, and when Connecticut, on account of her system of public education, was the brightest spot in all Christendom. Connecticut gave to the world the first example of a government providing a munificent fund for the education of every child within its limits, and of securing the benefits of this provision equally and forever to the humblest as well as to the highest, to the poorest as well as to the richest. She connected with this fund a system of general and minute supervision, good for its time, to preserve the fund from abuse and misapplication, and to give thoroughness and efficiency to its actual workings. It was a system suited to the state of society then existing—to the staid and sober habits of the people. It answered in a good measure, its design. It made teachers and parents both feel their responsibility.

The results of this school system, were great and good. Every hamlet in Connecticut of no more than twenty houses, whether spread out upon the plain, or crowded into the valley, whether sprinkled along the sloping hill-side, or wedged in among the brown rocks of some wild ravine, could show its district school-house, which was regularly opened for many months in the year. There was hardly to be known the son or daughter of Connecticut, who could not read and write. It was the rarest of all things to see one who had not received a good elementary education.

This was reported to the honor of Connecticut throughout the Christian world. The lover of his race, who had been rewarded for his zeal for the elevation of his countrymen, by a life-lease in a Prussian or Austrian dungeon, saw his prison wall all light about him when he thought of the one government in the world that had provided efficiently for the education of the humblest child, and gathered hope for the time, when his government and all governments should do the same. The surly and prejudiced Englishman, when he had said all the hard things that he could think of about America and the Yankees, could always be floored by one argument, and that was the Connecticut School Fund contrasted with the national debt of Great Britain. In our own Union, the other states were reproved

for their negligence, and spurred on to their duty by the example of what Connecticut had been the first to perform. The emigrant mother in Vermont or Western New York, as she looked around upon her untaught boys and girls, sighed for the schools of Connecticut and was ready to exchange the rich fields that were beginning to look so luxuriant about her, for the most rocky farm within the limits of a Connecticut school district.

But within the last twenty years a change in all these respects has taken place. Connecticut no longer holds the same high position which she once did. Austria and Prussia have provided their subjects with an efficient and successful Common School system. Other governments in Europe are slowly awaking to their duty and interest in respect to the same high matter. Despotism even is striving to make peace with its wronged and outraged subjects, by giving, in return for the civil rights which it withholds, the substantial blessings of universal education. Many of the states of our own Union are giving themselves to this cause with a zeal and energy which show them determined to make amends for past neglect and torpor. In Massachusetts, Ohio, New York, Georgia, Rhode Island, and many other states, vigorous and successful efforts are made. School funds are accumulated; taxes are readily imposed and cheerfully paid; Boards of Education are instituted; periodicals are circulated; public lectures are given; Normal Schools for the instruction of teachers are provided; teachers' conventions and Institutes are attended with zeal and profit. These, and other signs, show beyond question, that there is a strong movement in the public mind; that the people are being aroused. In some states and parts of states this interest is well-nigh enthusiastic.

But Connecticut! where is Connecticut the mean while? Where is she, who was once the star of hope and guidance to the world? She was the first to enter the lists, and was the foremost in the race. Is she foremost now? Whatever may be the truth of the case, it is certain, that she is not thought to be in the other states. It is the general opinion, *out of Connecticut*, that she is doing little or nothing; and, whereas, a few years since, her name was mentioned in connection with Common Schools, with honor, only; it is now, in this connection, coupled with expressions of doubt and regret, and that by wise and sober men. Her large State endowment is described as having put her effectually asleep, as having sent her to "Sleepy Hollow," from the influence of which, when she is aroused for a moment, it is to talk of her noble School Fund and James Hillhouse, just as Rip Van Winkle did of his neighbors who had been dead forty years. The School Fund is quoted every where *out of Connecticut*,—we venture to say it is quoted in every other state in the Union, as a warning and example to deter them from giving the proceeds of their own funds, except only on the condition, that those who receive shall themselves, raise as much as they take, and report annually as to the results. Those who go from other states into Connecticut, can hardly credit the testimony of their own senses when they are forced

to believe the apathy that prevails. Every newspaper and lecturer *out of Connecticut*, high and low, ignorant and knowing, sneers at the Connecticut School Fund, and the present condition of the Connecticut schools.

Are the people of Connecticut aware that this is the case? Do they know what the people of other states think and say of them? Do they believe that what is thought and said is true and deserved? We can hardly believe that they are generally aware of the bad repute into which their schools have fallen. Or if they are informed in respect to it, they do not believe that they merit so bad a name. The majority are too well contented to leave their schools as they are. They persuade themselves that their school system works as well as any public school system can be expected to work; that notwithstanding all that may be said out of the state against the schools of Connecticut, these schools are better than those of any state in the Union. They are opposed to any agitation of the subject. They will give their hearts to no strong and united effort to improve their schools. On the other hand, those who know that our schools are inferior to those of some of the other states, and who see clearly, in the prevailing apathy, the certain signs of a still greater degeneracy, are almost discouraged to hope for any great and permanent improvement. Neither of these classes are wholly in the wrong, nor wholly in the right. It is not true, that the schools of Connecticut are as good as those of certain other states. It is not true, that our public school system is as good, or is managed as efficiently as the systems of many other states. There is not only danger, but a certain prospect, that if things remain as they are, the schools of Connecticut will degenerate still more, and Connecticut will be dishonored more and more, in the comparison with her sister republics. It is not true, indeed, that all the hard and contemptuous things that have been said about our schools and our school fund are just and deserved, but the facts can be brought to prove that there is too much ground for them, and that the public apathy on this subject is inexcusable and fraught with evil.

But we would not despair. Connecticut though slow to move, moves sure and strong when she is aroused. She is cautious and prudent, but when she sees the reasons for a change she will change in earnest. We have too much love for our native state to be willing to despair. We believe that she is still the soundest at heart of any state in the Union, and that on this subject, she will show herself worthy of her ancient reputation. In the hope of contributing to this end, the following remarks are offered in respect to the present condition of the Public Schools of Connecticut, and the remedy which may be employed with the hope of success.

What then is the condition of the Common Schools of Connecticut? Facts are stubborn things. We present the following, in which the contrast is strikingly exhibited:

First, as to appropriations for school purposes. Money is the sinews of education as of war. The willingness to appropriate money shows zeal for any cause. Connecticut, in 1795, set apart for school

purposes a large and increasing fund for the support of schools, which now amounts to $2,070,000, and divides $1·40 for every scholar between the age of 4 and 16. Besides this, there are the town deposit-fund and local funds. Instead of annexing to the reception of their annual dividend the condition of raising a specified sum, the annual taxation was gradually diminished, till in 1822 it ceased altogether. In 1845, it is not known that a single town or school society in the state, raised a tax for school purposes by voluntary taxation. In a few of the large city districts, a small property-tax is collected, and applied to the wages of teachers, but not amounting in the whole state to $9,000, or 3 cents to each inhabitant, or 10 cents, to each child between the ages of 4 and 16.

Massachusetts and New York, as the capital and dividend of their school funds have increased, have, at the same time, increased the sums to be raised as a condition of receiving the dividend of their funds. From 1835 to 1845, the capital of the Massachusetts Fund was increased from $500,000 to $800,000. During the same period the amount annually raised in towns by tax, for the wages of teachers, has advanced from $325,320 to near $600,000. The statute of 1839 requires that $1·25, for every child between the ages of 4 and 16, should be raised and actually expended for the purposes of instruction in each town, whereas, more than $3·00 for every child of the above age was actually raised by tax in 1845 in 53 towns, more than $2·00 in 190 towns, and $2·99 is the average through the state. $2·99 is the average in Massachusetts and 10 cts. in Connecticut. It is instructive to look over the list of towns as arranged in the school returns of Massachusetts for 1846. The town standing first is a new town just out of Boston, which raises $7·64. The town numbered 8 is an unpretending agricultural town in Worcester county, which raises $4·82. The town numbered 30, a small town, raises $3·77. The town numbered 280 raises by tax $1·43 per scholar, which is 3 cts. more than every scholar in Connecticut *receives* from the School Fund.

In New York, when the legislature in 1838, virtually increased the capital of the School Fund from $2,000,000 to near $6,000,000, the obligation on the part of the towns, to raise an amount equal to that distributed was not removed. Thus, while the appropriation by the state was increased from $100,000 in 1835, to $275,000 in 1845, the amount required to be raised by tax in the towns increased in the same proportion, viz., from $100,000 to $275,000, and the amount voluntarily raised by the towns and districts in 1845, more than quadrupled the amount raised in the same way in 1835.

In Rhode Island, the state appropriation has increased from $10,000 in 1829 to $25,000 in 1845, while the towns in 1829 received the state appropriation unconditionally, but are now required to raise a third as much as they receive.

In Maine, 40 cts. must be raised for every inhabitant, which is perhaps more than is required in any other of the New England states.

Second, as to the supervision of schools. The first effort, to set apart a class of officers for the special duty of visiting schools and ex

amining teachers, was made by Connecticut in the school law of 1798, and there Connecticut has left the matter, except that the towns may now make returns to the commissioner of the School Fund, who is also superintendent of the schools. In the mean time other states have taken the suggestion from Connecticut and improved upon it. Massachusetts has a state Board of Education, with one individual devoting his whole time to collecting facts and diffusing information for the improvement of schools. New York has not only a state superintendent, but a school officer for each county, and a superintendent for each town. $28,000 was paid in 1844 as salaries to the county superintendents. Vermont and Rhode Island have recently adopted the system of state, county, and town superintendents.

Third, as to the education and improvement of teachers. The first elaborate effort to call public attention in this country to the importance of Normal schools or teachers' seminaries, was made by Rev. T. H. Gallaudet, in a series of essays published in Hartford, in 1825. Massachusetts put this idea into actual being. By the offer of $10,000 from Hon. Edmund Dwight, of Boston, the legislature unanimously appropriated an equal amount for the annual expense of three Normal schools for three years, and at the close of the third year, provision was made for the erection of buildings and the permanent support of these schools. In New York, a State Normal School has been established in Albany, and $10,000 annually appropriated for this object.

The first assembly of teachers, like those now known as Teachers' Institutes, ever held in this country, was held at Hartford in 1839, and it is believed to have been the last but one held in Connecticut. This important agency has since been introduced into New York, Ohio, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Vermont. In New York more than 6,000 teachers assembled in the different counties in the autumn of 1845. In Massachusetts, $2,500 have been appropriated by the legislature for their encouragement during the current year.

Fourth, School-houses. The first essay which is known to have been prepared to expose the evils of school-houses badly constructed, warmed, lighted, and ventilated, was read at a state Convention of the friends of education in Hartford, in 1830; and for nearly 9 years after, five school-houses only in the state are known to have been repaired and built in accordance with its suggestions. The same essay was read and published in Boston in 1831, and was followed by immediate attention to the subject in different parts of the state. In 1838, a new impulse was given to this kind of improvement by Mr. Mann's Report on the subject, and from that time till 1844, the amount of $634,326 was expended for the construction and permanent repairs of school-houses. Within the past two years, one-third of the school districts of Rhode Island have repaired old school-houses or constructed new ones after improved plans. Since 1838, more than $200,000 has been expended in this way.

Fifth, School-libraries. The first *juvenile library* perhaps in the world was established in Salisbury, Conn., more than half a century

since, and the originator of the school district library enterprise was a native of this state. This is about all that Connecticut is known to have done in this department. In 1838 New York appropriated a sum equal to about $5 for every school district, or $53,000 for the whole state, on condition that a like amount should be raised by the several towns, both sums to be spent in the purchase of books for school district libraries. Six years after this law passed there were more than one million and a half of volumes scattered through every neighbourhood of that great state. Massachusetts, for one year, appropriated the income of its school fund for this object on certain conditions, and at this time every school district is supplied with a library open to all the children and adults of the community.

We adduce these statistics as testimony concerning the degree of interest which is felt in Connecticut on this subject, compared, with the zeal that prevails in the above named states. We discuss not here, the importance or the wisdom of these measures. We have other testimony still more direct. It comes from the people themselves. Let any man study the returns of the school visitors as reported to the legislature in 1845, let any man study the reports now on file in the Commissioner's office for the year just closing, and he will receive one uniform and desponding confession in respect to the apathy that prevails—like an atmosphere of death. Particular defects are named and remedies are suggested, but the want of public interest is uniformly named as the worst and most disheartening evil. Then let him contrast these returns with those of many other states, and what a change will he notice. On the one hand is heard the voice of declension and despondency, on the other, the language of progress and hope.

But this does not exhaust the evidence. Those who go from Connecticut into other states, and from them into Connecticut, feel a shock in the transition. It is like going from a cellar into the sunshine, or from the sunshine into a cellar. We know an intelligent gentleman who has seen his scores of years, who has recently removed from Rhode Island into the "land of steady habits," and can hardly understand or believe that the apathy which he finds, can be a reality. The writer has within a few years made the change the other way, from Connecticut to the Bay State. He too has been forcibly impressed with the contrast. In one particular, this contrast is very striking. In Connecticut, the people have been persuaded, that to be taxed for the support of Common Schools, is a levy upon the poor, for the schools of the rich. In Massachusetts, the people *know* that all such taxes are a lawful tribute from the rich, for the benefit of the poor. We have seen in the latter state, in a crowded town meeting, a thousand hands raised as by magic, to vote the largest of two sums named by the school committee, a sum which was nearly a dollar for every individual of the entire population, men, women and children. The motion was made by one of the wealthiest men in the town, whose own children were too old to attend the public school. It was supported by others wealthier than he, and having no interest

of their own in the schools. A proposition to set apart five hundred dollars as a fund to be distributed to the feebler districts, at the discretion of the town committee, was moved in the same way, and carried without the show of opposition. In the same town, the year following, the school tax was increased by two thousand dollars, though the most important district had ten days before taxed itself nearly nine thousand dollars for land and a building for a high school. This occurred in a town by no means the foremost to engage in school improvements, and not even now the most conspicuous for its zeal or its expenditures. In Lowell, Salem, Worcester, Springfield, Roxbury, and in towns of less importance, the public school-houses are the best buildings in the town, inviting without for their aspect of beauty and solidity, and within for their convenient apartments and their abundant apparatus. We have seen something of the working of this school system for years. We have observed the conscientious and honorable pride felt in the public schools, by those influential for wealth and talent, who give to these schools their influence, and send to them their sons and daughters. What is of far more consequence and interest, we have freely mingled in the families of those in humbler life, and learned from the lips of parents their high sense of the value of these schools which cost them little or nothing, and which promised to give their children all the education which they desired. We have heard from the mother of a large family of boys, hearty regrets, that her sons must be removed from the school by the departure of the family from town. Seeing these things, we could not but conclude that public schools may attain high perfection, and that such schools are the choicest of earth's blessings.

But this introduces the second and the most important of our inquiries—"What can be done to improve the public schools of Connecticut?" It is of little use to conclude that these schools sadly need such improvement, if no remedy can be devised. To summon a counsel of ill-natured and desponding physicians, rather hurts than helps the patient, if all that they can do is to find fault by his bedside. It is with diffidence, yet with strong conviction that we make the following suggestions:

The friends of Common Schools should not place their main reliance on legislative enactments and influence. Not that legislative action if united and hearty, is not most desirable; not that a well digested reform of the school laws is not called for; nor again that if it could be secured and made permanent it would not be a most important step towards final success. But what if such action is not to be hoped for? What shall be done? Shall we say that nothing can be done? This has been said too long already. The common feeling has been that until the legislature should move, to an entire change in the school law, nothing is to be hoped for. The guilt o the public neglect and the excuse for the general apathy have been a.. carried to the doors of the government and left there, as if nothing could be done without its aid. This is a false view of the case. Important as legislative action may be, of itself it can accomplish lit·

tle. It must be carried home by the awakened zeal of the people It is the sign and stimulant of the public mind aroused. To effect such action, if it shall ever be effected, the public feeling must cail with a commanding voice. In the states in which so much has been done, in connection with a revisal of their school system, the interest has not so much been created by the new laws, as it has itself created them. The laws have been the product of the zeal of the public, which zeal has itself given life and efficiency to the laws. In Rhode Island, where, at this moment, there is going forward a most enthusiastic movement for Common Schools, it is carried forward by individual agency and expense, seconded by school laws indeed, but borne forward by the people, as one of the mighty swells of their own ocean lifts the stranded vessel from the beach.

The main reliance in Connecticut, as in other states, must be placed on the waking of the public mind, by the ordinary means of moving this mind. The press must be enlisted; vigorous pens must be set in motion; all political parties must lend their aid; lecturers must be employed; conventions must be held; the pulpit must speak out, till a conscience shall be created and aroused in respect to the duties of Christains towards the neglected and half heathenized population in their midst. Facts—facts, on this subject can be made to speak, as they are uttered by zealous but fair minded men. The truth of the case can be demonstrated till no man shall dare to deny it, that Connecticut is far behind her sister states in this matter, and will soon be still farther in the rear. If this is evaded or denied, it can be proved. All this will involve expense and self-denial, and difficulties, and discouragements. But without this active agency no change is to be hoped for. The agency must be sustained; the expense must be incurred, and the agitation must be prosecuted.

But what specific plan shall be urged? What shall it be proposed to effect? What principles shall be aimed at, asserted and raised upon our banner? In answer, we say,—Popular education is no longer a theory;—it has been tested and determined by experiment. The principles which a public school system must involve, have been settled by trial. These must enter into every plan that will work with success. They may be reached in different methods; but they must be reached in some way or the plan will fail. What are these principles? We answer:—

First. A thorough examination and supervision of the teachers and the schools by competent and faithful men. Teachers of common schools are the servants of the public. In Connecticut, they are mainly supported from the public funds. They receive from the State, year by year, more than one hundred and fifteen thousand dollars. Let them be held to a real and rigid responsibility for their qualifications for their place, and for the fulfillment of its duties.—There is not a turnpike company in Connecticut which yields a revenue of a hundred dollars the year, for whose control and supervision a commissioner is not appointed—whose services the company are required to pay. Not a Bank is left unvisited by a commissioner

to inspect its books and supervise its proceedings. Nay, not an individual is allowed to practice the simple business of a measurer of land, before he has been examined by the County Surveyor, and received a license from him, for which license he must pay the fees. Not a physician, nor clergyman, nor lawyer, is allowed the privileges or emoluments of his profession, till he has been examined and licensed by some individual, or body of men. Why are not the teachers of the public schools subjected to the same necessity?—to an examination which shall express the solemnity of the trust committed to their hands, and the importance of the profession to which they are admitted? Would the hardship be intolerable and excessive—would it be a hardship at all, if every man who proposes to teach, was first required to obtain a license from one or more commissioners in his county, or senatorial district, for which he himself should pay? The present system of examination does not answer the object which it was intended to accomplish. It is the testimony of by far the majority of the Boards of Examiners in the state, that it is little more than a form, and often no better than a farce. A young man wishes to obtain fifty or one hundred dollars by keeping a winter school. He goes boldly to the committee, for he knows they will find it hard to refuse him permission—for the committee consists of the clergyman to whose parish he belongs, and who will be slow to think him unqualified, as common schools go; of the physician, who will not like to offend the young man's parents; and of the lawyer, who is looking to political promotion. However conscientious or faithful this committee may desire to be, it is hard for them often to know what to decide. The examination of teachers is not their business, and they have framed no fixed standard by which to judge. Their duties are thankless duties—a favor done to the public, rather than a trust for which they are held responsible, and their field is so limited that they cannot give to it earnest and devoted energy.

Let the change proposed be introduced. Let the candidate be obliged to go out of his native town for his license. Let him know that he is to be examined in the presence of twenty or fifty other candidates, and by those who have no partiality for him, arising from personal acquaintance; and to be qualified to teach a winter school, would be thought a graver matter than it now is. The profession would be elevated at once. A higher grade of qualifications would be sought for and attained. There would be that dignity and pride attached to the calling of a teacher, which is secured by an honorable admission through a difficult entrance. And this need not cost the state a dollar.

If to the same commissioners should be intrusted the duty of visiting the schools within a given district, another advantage would be gained. In passing from one school to another, they would have room for comparison, and a field for suggestions. They could meet the teachers of each town in friendly and profitable interviews. They could confer with the town committees, and visit the schools with

hem ; to receive and give light in respect to the wants of each town, and the remedies for these defects. The friends of education, the benevolent and the public-spirited, would look to them with hope and confidence, and would gather around them to aid and encourage them. The expense for this service need not be great. We take it for granted, that a school visitor has as good right to be paid for his time and labor, as a fence viewer, or pound keeper. If the school visitors should relinquish their duty to them in whole or in part, and with it the pay which they ought to receive, and in some cases do receive, the additional cost of this arrangement would not be great. But what if, perchance, it should cost something ? It is worth something. It would be a reproach to the memory of his fathers, for a Connecticut man to think otherwise. It would be a slander on the founders of the School Fund, who thought two millions not too great a sum to set apart for common education, to say that it was not worth the while to pay something to make its blessings more valuable and certain.

We make this suggestion with more confidence, when we remember, that it was the opinion of one of the most sagacious men that Connecticut ever boasted, that the appointment of County Commissioners to perform the services specified, would be the crowning feature to perfect the Connecticut School System.

Second. Teacher's Institutes may be held throughout the State and that also, without delay. These are conventions for mutual improvement and excitement. They may be also called travelling Teachers' seminaries.—These have been held in other states with the most striking results. The idea was indeed conceived in Connecticut, years ago, and was tried on a small scale for two years in succession. At a place and time previously agreed upon, the teachers within a given district are invited to be present, to spend a week or more in convention. The time is employed in discussing the best methods of teaching reading, writing, &c., and the various points connected with school discipline. What is more to the point, lessons are given in these various branches, and those whose business it is to teach, receive instruction from eminent and experienced instructors. We noticed in a recent account of one of these Institutes, that a distinguished elocutionist and teacher of reading was present, and gave a course of lessons. We doubt not that every teacher who read with him, or who heard others read, for several days, will read the better all his life, and that the reading in the scores of schools there represented, has received an impulse for the better for the few days spent at that Institute. The same benefit might be looked for from the presence of teachers in simple drawing, writing, and arithmetic. At these meetings, experienced teachers give the results of their various methods, of their many mistakes, and the ways in which they were corrected. Here raw and timid teachers are initiated into their new business; older teachers receive valuable suggestions, which their experience and their sense of want, enable them at once to understand and to apply ; self-conceited teachers are forced to let go some of their old notions, and to grow wiser as they compare

themselves with those who know more than themselves. An enthusiasm in their business is excited. They are impressed with right views of the dignity and solemnity of their employment. They form new and strong attachments, and from these interesting and exciting scenes, they go fresh and cheerful to the labors of the season, furnished with valuable knowledge. These Institutes differ from ordinary conventions, in that they furnish definite business, and are spent in gaining real knowledge. They are not wasted in idle harangues and fine speeches. They continue long enough to lay out much real work, and to accomplish it. They furnish a model for Town Associations, and the teachers who have felt the advantages of these larger meetings, continue their influence, by repeating the same thing on a smaller scale. So important have they been found to be by trial, that in the year 1845 a friend of education in Massachusetts gave one thousand dollars to defray the expenses of a series of these meetings, and the legislature of that state, during its session now just expiring, appropriated two thousand five hundred dollars for the curren year, to enable the teachers of the state to avail themselves of these advantages.

Let these Institutes be held in Connecticut with no delay. Le them be carried into all parts of the state. Let them be made interesting by providing able assistants, and by the co-operation of the friends of education, each in their own district. Let some provision be made by the liberal, that the expense attending them shall not be too burdensome. This experiment can be made without any legislative countenance. It needs only a willing heart, and a ready hand. Let it be made thoroughly in all parts of the state, and let it be seconded, as it can be, and as it *must* be, in order to be successful, and it will do much to kindle zeal and to create hope for our common schools. It is simple, voluntary, practicable, and cheap. Let it be tried, and it will not be many years before the inquiry will be raised, whether an education for their business is not required for common school teachers, and whether schools for this specific purpose are not demanded. This suggests another proposition.

Third. In order to improve the schools of Connecticut, schools are needed for the education of teachers. Normal schools can be provided in Connecticut as easily as in other states. If it is not done by the state, it can be done by the benevolent. If the expense is not defrayed by the legislature, as in Massachusetts and New York, it can be defrayed by individuals, as in New Hampshire. In some way it will be done, when the public mind is aroused as it must be. Teachers themselves desire the advantages furnished by such seminaries. In addition to Normal schools, there is greatly needed an educational establishment in some central situation, well furnished with buildings and apparatus, and well enough endowed to furnish the best tuition at a low rate ; an institution where the sons of the Connecticut farmers can receive a good education in all the higher branches, as well as in the elements of the classics, and in which the sciences which pertain to agriculture, should be thoroughly mastered. Such an in-

stitution would be a central light. It would furnish a noble basis for accomplished common school teachers. Let us hope that the time may not be far distant when we shall be able to speak of our Williston and of our seminary, like the one which is honored by his name.

Fourth. The teachers of our schools, to teach better must be paid better. Their business must be made more lucrative and permanent. It must be made an object for them to qualify themselves amply for their vocation, and to continue in it longer. This can be done only as teaching yields a respectable living. There are not more than ten teachers in the state who have a living now, while there are more than a hundred school districts, that with a judicious arrangement, and their present income, might sustain the same teacher from year to year. But the means of payment can be greatly increased. There is not a state in the Union in which teachers can be paid so well as in Connecticut, and in which the burden shall be so little felt. No state has so magnificent a school fund. Let there be raised in addition, less per scholar, than is cheerfully raised in the majority of agricultural towns in Massachusetts, and the best teachers in the country would flock into Connecticut, as many now rush from it. The people of these towns were not impoverished by raising this sum.—Nor would it impoverish the people of Connecticut. On the contrary, it would enrich them; for it can be proved that a liberal sum cheerfully raised for a course of years by any community for common education, will return to that community in money, with more than compound interest.

Fifith. The cities and large villages should at once make use of their peculiar facilities for elevating their public schools. Thus will they show, in actual results, what can be accomplished, and excite other towns with zeal not to be behind them. The plan which we propose is extremely simple, and has been tested so often and so long as to have passed the best of all tests—that of actual experiment.—The central and more compact portions of the city or village, should first be constituted a single school district. Let the younger scholars—those younger than from eight to ten—be distributed in primary school-houses, which should be located at convenient points in the district, so that the walk should in no case be fatiguing. They should be instructed in all cases by female teachers, in summer and winter, and from year to year. Female teachers are cheaper; female teachers are better for this immature age. Their influence is more gentle; it forms the girls to mild dispositions and graceful manners; it infuses a portion of its own sweetness into the harsh and self-willed perverseness of early boyhood. Female teachers are more patient than those of the other sex. They can teach, with better effect, music, drawing, and writing. Last and not least—experience has shown that primary schools, such as we speak of, can in their hands, be conducted with the most entire success. We would that all the parents could be introduced to some of these delightful schools, taught by one or more females, "in whose own hearts, Love, Hope, and Patience, had

first kept school." We have seen the pupils gather around the teacher each morning with eagerness and new delight. We have heard from their own lips, breaking out in unconscious expressions of love, the strong affection which she had inspired. We have heard the clear and shrill piping of their cheerful songs. We have measured the quiet moral influences that have been thus infused, and have gathered strength from day to day.

From these primary schools, after having passed through a prescribed course of study, and in general, after having attained a fixed age, the pupils should go to the central school. If the district is small, one school will suffice to be taught by a master through summer and winter. If it is large, it may be subdivided into more or fewer gradations—the lower to be taught by females. In almost all cases, the assistants of the masters may be females, and by the aid of two experienced and competent females, and with the convenience of recitation rooms, one master can control from one hundred to one hundred and fifty pupils. Higher than this, if the population will allow it, there may be another school, the High School, or two High Schools—one for each of the sexes. To these no pupil should be admitted, except on passing a close examination, and this school should teach the highest branches that can be contemplated in a system of universal education—the Mathematics, the Natural Sciences, and perhaps the elements of the Languages. All these schools should be under one system, and be free to all. This is no theory. There are at this moment in villages of New England, of from one thousand five hundred to four thousand inhabitants, public schoolhouses, more tasteful and convenient than any college building in Connecticut. In these school-houses an education is given so superior that no select school can live by their side. To these schools scholars crowd from the neighboring towns, and will perform menial services in families, in order to gain a residence in the village and admission to its public school. This is as it should be. This is republicanism. But how is it in Connecticut? Some of the cities have made a beginning, it is true, and with good to themselves and a healthful influence upon the communities around. But there are hundreds of communities, in which this plan might be introduced, which are opposed to it altogether. There are some in which it has been tried, and abandoned through opposition. We know a village in which two thousand dollars were to be raised, all the preliminaries having been adjusted, and this money was in the main to be voted for by the people, and to be paid by a single man, who was himself anxious to pay it, and yet the enterprise failed by the cry of "*a school for the rich!*" What is the state of many of these villages, both manufacturing and agricultural? Is it not true that select schools are sustained by the rich and the reputable, both for older and even for very young children?—that in consequence, the common schools have been abandoned more or less, generally, to the poor and the neglected, and have degenerated because the rich do not care for them? Is it not true that the degeneracy of the common schools in the

best and largest towns of Connecticut may be traced to the time when select schools were introduced as its beginning, and that this degeneracy has been going forward ever since? Is it not true, to confirm this matter by argument that cannot be broken, that the best common schools now existing are to be found in those towns and districts in which select schools are impossible, and all classes of the community are interested to make the public school the best school.

Is it not true moreover, that by this separation of intercourse, of sympathy, and of acquaintance, begun in infancy, matured in childhood, and hardened in youth into contempt and scorn, on the one side, and into jealousy and malice on the other; there has been commenced in Connecticut a permanent and anti-republican division of society, on the one side of which, social oppression shall gather strength, and in the other shall lurk the incendiary and the murderer?

Sixth. The doctrine should be understood and proclaimed in Connecticut, that the property of the whole community may rightfully be taxed, for the support of public education. It should be proclaimed, because it is the true doctrine. The pecuniary interests of a community like our own, to say nothing of those interests that are higher, are deeply concerned in the question whether all shall be educated. They are as vitally concerned too, that all shall be *well* educated. The property of the rich, whether they have children or not, may and should be taxed, because the security of that property demands that this insurance should be effected upon it. The tax which they pay is only the premium on this insurance. Besides, it is cheaper as well as more grateful, to pay a tax for the support of schools, than it is to pay the same for jails and poor-houses.

In Connecticut this right is denied and disputed. A tax may be levied on a district for the construction and repair of school-houses, but when a sum is to be raised additional to that which is received from the public funds, it is left to those who have children to send to the school. The consequences of this system are most mischievous. The summer school becomes a select school, instead of being a public school. Or perhaps to make it open to all, for a month or two, the allowance from the public treasury is eked out by the greatest possible extenuation. The cheapest teacher is hired, and the winter school is robbed of the means of subsistence, in order to furnish the thinnest possible allowance for its starving sister in the summer. When this "short allowance" is consumed, the children of the laboring poor, at once the most numerous and the most needy, are retained at home, because the parents can or will not pay the *capitation* tax. The children of the rich are sent to the select school of a higher order, the one of their own providing; while the children of the middling classes occupy the district school-house, with the select school No. 2. Hence, in the summer, troops of children go no where to school, except to the school of nature, which to them is the school of ignorance and vice, and the schools which are kept up in multitudes of cases, are the merest skeletons of schools, both in numbers and in character. This bad and unequal system is sustained from two

causes—the opposition of so many tax-payers to a system of property taxation—and what is more unaccountable, the opposition of those who are *tax-voters* but not *tax-payers*, who are set against such a system, because it tends to build up schools for the rich! More than one instance can be named, in which this doctrine has been industriously circulated by some cunning miser among his poorer neighbors, and they have gone to the school meeting to vote against all expense, not dreaming that their advisers were trembling in their shoes, for fear of a petty rate bill. And so they have voted against any change, and saved their neighbor all expense, literally, and brought down the tax upon their own heads.

This is unequal, anti-republican, and wrong; and it ought to be made odious. It should be held up in all its unfairness. The right of the town or school society to tax its property should be embraced by all parties. The party calling itself conservative should proclaim it, because it tends so certainly to the security of society. The party calling itself popular should hold it, because it sends one of the best of blessings to the door of every man.

To this should be added, the condition attached to the distribution of the State fund, that no school society should receive its lawful portion, except on the condition, that it should raise by taxation, a specified sum for every scholar. This would be a hard doctrine in Connecticut, it is true, and that is the very reason why it should be insisted on. It is true and most important, and should be boldly uttered. The other States, without an exception, that distribute from school funds, do it on such a condition. The entire public sentiment of the Union, is fixed and unchangeable on this point, and we grieve to say that we fear the neglect of Connecticut has been a warning against following her example. Shall it be that this munificent bequest of our fathers, given to promote the cause of public education, hall fail of its design through the neglect or perversion of their sons? or shall it serve this cause, most effectually, as Connecticut shall stand forth as a perpetual monument to warn against the like use of such funds? Shall it be that the State which they designed should be the model State to the Union, shall serve only as an example to admonish its sister States, rather than as one to excite and inspire them? Are we not bound as trustees of this fund, to secure the most complete fulfillment of their designs, and, as experience and a change of circumstances call for new safeguards, to provide these safeguards? May not the people make the raising of a specified sum on the property of the State, a condition against the improvident waste of this bounty?

The argument on this subject is very simple, and as it would seem, very convincing. In order to improve our Common Schools, more money must be provided. If it is raised, as it now is by a tax upon those who use the schools, then the schools are no longer common schools, but for a part of the year, they must be select schools. The one must embarrass the other. Those who will have better schools will leave the public schools altogether. Those who depend on the

common schools, cannot or will not elevate them. But introduce a property tax, and you make the schools the property and the pride of the whole people. You make it for the interest of the rich to use the money which they now expend for the support of higher establishments to raise and improve the public schools. Thus the blessings of this expenditure will be diffused. Its light and warmth will not be like that of the fire which cheers one apartment only, but like the heat of the blessed sun, which gives no less to the rich, for what it gives to the poor. To connect the raising of a small sum per scholar, as a condition of receiving the bounty of the State, is the simplest and surest way of elevating the schools of the whole State, together and alike.

These are the principles which must be received in Connecticut, and believed by its citizens generally, in order to secure a thorough improvement in its common schools. It might be shown, that some of the most important of them, were suggested by citizens of Connecticut, long before the present movement for Common Schools commenced in the other States. They are of Connecticut origin. Let them be owned as her own and here put in practice, as they can be no where beside.

These principles may be propagated. Let the legislature be memorialized. But let not the legislature be relied upon as the only hope. It may not be expedient that the government should move at once. It may not be practicable, if it is expedient. Individuals can do much without the government. A State association can be formed. Measures can be taken to unite the friends of education throughout the State. Teachers' Institutes, and Normal Schools can be set on foot by individual and associated benevolence, as they have been in a portion of New Hampshire. Such a movement would not be very expensive. The agencies need not be costly, nor the expenditures great, but the work is precious, and worth much cost, if it were required.

Nor is the work discouraging. It is discouraging in its beginnings, but rapid in its advances. Every district animated with a right spirit, diffuses light and wakens interest in ten of its neighborhood. Every school-house, well constructed, with its convenient apartments, its successful teacher, and its happy scholars, gives an impulse which cannot be computed. Parents are animated with hope and desire. Children ask why their own school-house cannot be as good. Prejudice is softened. Scepticism is convinced, and public spirit is awakened.

The Connecticut people may be aroused. There are thousands and tens of thousands, who are ready to stand upon their feet and to put their shoulders to this work. They are not rash, nor headlong it is true—they are cautious and stable, but they are the more steadfast when thoroughly convinced. They are not profuse and extravagant in their expenditures—but they have money, and they are willing to give it for objects seen to be important. They are not carried away by vague declamation or transcendental moonshine—but they have

intellects to discern and hearts to feel, in respect to a concern so practical and good as that of public education. Let the work be commenced with vigor and with hope.

In carrying it forward, two classes of citizens can be especially useful. On them rests a great and peculiar responsibility. We name first, the acting politicians of all parties. They are now uncommitted as partisans for or against any system. They have an equal interest in the improvement of schools. It would be a slander which they would resent with indignation, to say that they do not feel an equal zeal for this most important interest, in which the prosperity and pride of the State are equally concerned. Eminent individuals of all political names are known to be zealous for common school reform. There are subjects enough beside this, out of which political capital can be made. Attempts to do this elsewhere, have been signally rebuked. Let parties divided by questions of national policy, vie with each other in their zeal and efficiency, in respect to this common interest, for which every man's hearth-stone cries out in his ears. Let it never be said that the citizens of Connecticut grind the bodies and souls of their children between the upper and nether millstone of political contests. Heathen barbarism, offered to "Moloch, horrid king," its children in sacrifice by sending them through devouring flames blazing fiercely on either side,

> "Though for the noise of drums and timbrels loud
> Their children's cries unheard, that pass'd through fire
> To his grim idol."

Let not this be enacted on a more fearful scale, in civilized and Christian Connecticut.

On the clergy of Connecticut there rests also a great and solemn responsibility. It is a religious duty to care for the untaught, the neglected, and the ignorant. It is a duty to give to such, the best intellectual and moral culture which we can. It is a duty which we owe to our nearest neighbor, a duty which is simple, pressing, and most easily discharged. So do we best aid and prepare them for influences appropriately and directly religious. Let this duty be preached, on the Sabbath and from the pulpit. Let it be preached till it is believed, and the hearers show their faith by their works. We raise money to provide schools for the destitute in our own land. We raise it also, to send to Ceylon, and Burmah, and China, that schools may be established, which may prepare the youthful mind for the influences and the truths of our holy religion. And yet there are towns in Connecticut in which there are scores of children, which for want of that moral and intellectual culture, that the public schools might give, are, as really, though not in the same degree, hopeless subjects of religious truth, as many children of Ceylon and Burmah. We have seen children of this character. Besides these, there are thousands for whom, a teacher could do far more than a clergyman, and on whom the church can act most directly and efficiently through the teache

We are well aware that efforts have been made to excite distrust of any system of public education, on religious grounds, and to arouse against it sectarian prejudice and conscientious convictions. There may have been occasion for these feelings in some states of the Union. Injudicious management, false principles, efforts to propo gate peculiar principles, insidious and open, may have been noticed The school system has therefore been held up as anti-religious. The doctrine has been proclaimed that each church must have its separate schools, in order to secure an education thoroughly Christian.

In Connecticut there need be no fear of embarrassment of this kind. The people of Connecticut, with scarcely an exception, are of one mind in the belief of the following truths. They believe in the moral duties as enforced by the words and life of Jesus. They believe with Washington, that public morality is best secured by religious faith and religious feeling. None of them will object to the use of simple but fervent prayers and hymns, to the inculcation of the duty of imitating Christ, and of trusting in him. In these points they can all unite, and they can turn them to use in their public schools. What the children need to be taught beside, can be supplied in the family, the Sabbath school, the pulpit.

Such is the position of things in Connecticut. We have seen her ancient glory ; the present depression with its causes ; the need of effort ; the points to which this effort should be directed, and the grounds of discouragement and hope. Shall this good work be undertaken ? Shall this field be entered ? No state in the Union has means so abundant. No state can, if it will, have schools so splendid and so good. Its population is homogeneous, frugal, intelligent, moral, and religious. It has been accustomed to common schools for generations. It has a school system already established in the hearts and habits of all, which needs improvement only, and not a new beginning. The memory of the past calls us to effort. The necessity of the present will not let us alone. The voices of the venerable dead, speak to us in solemn tones from that dim and distant world to which they have gone, and command us not to be untrue to the precious trust which they garnered for us. The cries of the living come up to us, and in tones piteous as an infant's wailing, beseech us to spare their childhood from neglect, and their future manhood from ignorance and crime. The honor of the State and of the fathers of the State calls on its citizens. The sons of Connecticut who have gone out from the paternal mansion, burn with eager desire to be able to put to silence the reproaches which they are forced to hear, and to know that the spirit which provided the School Fund, still lives to make effectual that important trust Those who were personally active in devising and securing this fund, would tell us that no care of ours can surpass the thoughtfulness with which Treadwell studied its conception, and no labor of ours can compare with the daily and nightly toil with which Hillhouse and Beers secured its investments, and watched its securities. The question is, shall Connecticut then be true to herself ? We have seen the trim and noble

ship, manned by a skillful crew, open the passage through an unknown and dangerous strait, and gallantly lead the way for a timid and creeping fleet, into a secure and long desired haven. We have seen her pass every shoal but the last, but just as she doubles its treacherous point, she grounds for an instant, and the cry is from the fleet, she will be stranded there! They make all haste to rush past her. In their cry of exultation they forget all her guidance in the past. Shall *she* then be stranded, who has guided so many vessels to so noble a port? Shall her last service be to lie on the quicksands, a decaying hulk, deserted and useless, except as a beacon to show the shoal on which she struck? Shall she be stranded? No, no! A thousand times, No! Let the cry then be, *Connecticut first to lead the way, and foremost forever!*

NOTE I.

PLAN AND MEASURES OF A VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATION FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF COMMON SCHOOLS.

The following suggestions indicate more in detail, the views of the author of the Essay as to the mode, at once simple and systematic; in which the friends of popular education can put forth their efforts for the improvement of common schools.

ARTICLES OF ASSOCIATION.

Article 1. This Association shall be styled the Connecticut (*or the name of any Town or County can be inserted*) Institute of Instruction, and shall have for its object the improvement of common schools, and other means of popular education in this State, (*or Town, or County.*)

Article 2. Any person residing in this State, (*or Town or County,*) may become a member of the Institute by subscribing this Constitution, and contributing any sum, annually, towards defraying its incidental expenses.

Article 3. The officers of the Institute shall be a President, two or more Vice Presidents, a Treasurer, a Recording Secretary, and a Corresponding Secretary for each county, (*or town in case of a county association,*) with such powers respectively, as their several designations imply; and who shall, together, constitute an Executive Committee.

Article 4. The Executive Committee shall carry into effect such measures as the Institute may direct; and perform such other acts not inconsistent with the objects of the association, as they may deem expedient, and make report of their doings, annually, and when called on, at any regular meeting of the Institute.

Article 5. A meeting of the Association for the choice of officers shall be held, annually, at such time and place as the Executive Committee may designate in a notice published in one or more newspapers; and meetings may be held at such other time and place, as the Executive Committee may appoint.

Article 6. This constitution may be altered at any annual meeting, by a majority of the members present, and regulations, not inconsistent with its provisions may be adopted at any meeting.

Measures which can be adopted by a voluntary Association to improve Common Schools.

1. Information can be collected and disseminated in every practicable way, in every district, town, and county in the State, as to the present condition of common schools, and other means of popular education, with plans and suggestions by which the excellencies of any one teacher, district, or town, can be improved and made general, and any defects be removed.

2. Meetings of the Association can be held in different towns for public addresses and discussions on topics connected with the condition and improvement of Common Schools.

3. A series of Tracts, each number devoted to some one important topic, relating to the organization and administration of a school system, or to the classification, instruction and discipline of schools, can be prepared and published for gratuitous distribution among teachers, school officers, parents, and every body who has a child to educate, a vote to give, or an influence to exert in relation to public instruction.

4. Editors and conductors of the periodical press can be enlisted to publish original, and selected articles relating to the subject.

5. Clergymen can be interested to present the subject in some of its bearings at appropriate times to their people.

6. Local associations of parents and the friends of education, and especially district and town associations of mothers and females, generally, for the purpose of visiting schools, and co-operating in various ways with teachers, can be formed and assisted.

7. Pecuniary aid and personal co-operation can be extended for the purpose of securing at different points, a school-house, with its appropriate in-door and out-door arrangements, a school library, a district school, and a village lyceum, which can be held up severally, as a *model of its kind.*

8. Good teachers can be assisted in finding districts where their services will be appreciated and rewarded, and district committees in search of good teachers, can be directed to such teachers as have proved on trial that they possess the requisite qualifications.

9. The necessary local arrangements can be made, and the services of experienced teachers secured for the purpose of facilitating the holding, in the spring and autumn, a teachers' class or Institute, where young and inexperienced teachers may spend one or two weeks in reviewing the studies which they are to teach, in the summer or winter schools; and witness, and to some extent, practice, the best methods of classifying, instructing, and governing a school.

10. The formation of town and county associations of teachers, for mutual improvement and the advancement of their profession, by weekly or monthly meetings, and by visiting each others' schools, and learning from each others' experience, can be encouraged.

11. Efforts can be put forth to collect a fund for the establishment, at the earliest moment, of a seminary where young men and young women, who have the desire and the natural tact and talent, can be thoroughly and practically trained for teachers of common schools.

12. A well qualified teacher, of the right tact and character can be employed to perform an itinerating Normal school agency through the schools of a particular town or county.

13. School celebrations or gatherings of all the children of a school society, or town, with their parents and teachers, for addresses and other appropriate exercises, can be held at the close of the winter and summer schools.

14. Village Lyceums can be established and assisted in getting up courses of popular lectures in the winter.

15. A central depository or office, supplied with plans of school-houses, apparatus, and furniture; a circulating library of books and pamphlets on education; specimens of school libraries, and the best text books in the various studies persued in common schools, &c., can be established.

16. To give the highest efficiency to any or all of these means and agencies of school improvement, an individual should be employed to devote all, or a portion of his time, as agent under the direction of the Executive Committee of the Institute, and receive such compensation as can be raised by a special subscription for this purpose.

Every measure above enumerated has been tried and carried out in other states, successfully, by means of voluntary associations, similar to the one proposed.

This Essay was circulated in connection with the Superintendent's Report, through every school district in the State, and was widely and eagerly read. The gentleman whose liberality called it forth, and contributed to its circulation, in connection with other citizens of Hartford, determined to do something in the direction indicated in the note to this Essay. The holding of an Institute or convention of the teachers of Hartford county, in the month of November, was determined on, and the Rev. Merrill Richardson, a gentlemen admirably fitted for the purpose, was employed to visit the several towns in the county, and awaken an interest in the object of the meeting. A spirited convention of two hundred and fifty-four teachers was held, and through these teachers and a printed notice of the proceedings of the convention, a powerful impulse was given to the public mind. A monthly school journal under the name of the Connecticut School Manual was started, in January, 1847, and has continued through the year, under the editorial charge of Mr. Richardson. Other Institutes were held, and through their influence and the exertions of the Superintendent and other friends of common schools, the Legislature in May made provision for holding two or more schools for teachers in each county. These institutes or schools for teachers have been held, as has been already noticed.

The efforts of Mr. Bunce and other gentlemen in Hartford, did not end with getting up and carrying out the plan of a Teachers' Institute. They set about the establishment of a Public High School in the First School Society of Hartford, a school which should be worthy of the city and the State, which should give as good an English education, and preparatory classic education as any academy or private school in New England, and rest for its support on the old New England principle of property taxation. The project was broached. The plan was discussed in the public press, and in pamphlets which were distributed to every family in the Society. Public meetings were held, in which elaborate and animated debates were conducted by the most prominent speakers in the city. Seldom has the public mind of Hartford been more deeply interested in any subject, and finally the plan was carried by an overwhelming vote of the largest school meeting ever convened in the Society. Twelve thousand dollars were appropriated for the erection of a suitable building, and a committee of men of the right stamp appointed to carry out the vote of the Society. This committee, finding that the expense of such an edifice, with the appropriate fixtures would exceed the appropriation, subscribed twenty-five hundred dollars among themselves to make the building what they have,—second to no other structure of the kind in New England for the completeness of all its parts. The school has opened under the charge of Joshua D. Giddings, formerly Principal of the Fountain street

Grammar School, as Principal. The establishment of a Public High School, after the able and prolonged public discussion to which the plan was subjected, and supported mainly by tax on the property of the whole community, is the most important event in the school history of Connecticut for the last twenty years.

But the zeal and liberality of Mr. Bunce and his associates did not end here. They put forth efforts to collect a fund for the establishment of a seminary where young men and young women who have the desire, and the natural tact and talent for teaching, can be thoroughly and practically trained for this vocation. Ten thousand dollars were subscribed for this object, one half of which amount was subscribed by Mr. Bunce, and offered to the State on condition that the General Assembly would appropriate a like amount for the same object, but instead of doing as the Legislature of Massachusetts under similar circumstances did, promptly and unanimously accepting the offer, and making the necessary appropriation, the Legislature was so cautious not to do any thing in advance of what the people should call for, that the whole matter of a Normal School was referred to a committee to be appointed by the Governor, of one from a county, for examination, and to report on at the next session of the Legislature. In the mean time the Institutes or schools for teachers will prepare the public for something more thorough and complete.

We must not omit to notice another document—*the Report of the Joint Standing Committee on Education, on the establishment of Professorships of Agriculture and the Arts.* This report originated in a petition of the President and Fellows of Yale College, asking for aid to enable them to establish such professorships in that institution, through which *free instruction* should be extended to every inhabitant of the State who may wish to avail himself of it. The Report approved the object but proposed no appropriation for the present.

MAINE.

In June, 1846, the Legislature of Maine constituted a Board of Education, consisting of one member for each county, with power to appoint a Secretary, hold Teachers' Institutes in each county, and report annually. *The first Report of the Board for* 1847, *together with a Report of the Secretary,* (*William G. Crosby, of Belfast,*) and other documents, making a pamphlet of 135 pages, is before us. It is a very valuable document, and proves that the common schools in Maine are in a very low condition, as compared with their capabilities. Cheap, dilapidated, uncomfortable school-houses, irregular attendance, unqualified teachers, sleepy supervisors, want of parental interest, and other evils are complained of in Maine as well as in other parts of New England. But the work of reform is commenced, and it seems to be in judicious hands.

We can only find room here for the closing paragraph of Mr. Crosby's Report.

"The success which has thus far attended the recent effort in this State, to direct attention to the most prominent defects in the administration of our Common School system, and arouse the public mind to a consciousness of the necessity of reform, of prompt and efficient action, affords matter for congratulation. To the faithful few, who, for years past, through good and evil report, have manfully upheld the good cause, too great a share of praise cannot be awarded. It was from their unwearied efforts that the friends of education in convention at Augusta, in the month of January, 1846, derived encouragement and assurance to address the representatives of the people in behalf of the free school. The promptness with which the memorial of that convention was met and answered, the unanimity with which the bill, reported in compliance with the prayer of the memorialists, passed the Legislature, reflect honor alike upon the individuals composing it, and the State whose interests they represented, and is a happy augury for the future. But having done so much, the danger that individual effort may be relaxed, that to this Board may be confided the achievement of that reform which can be effected only by the coöperation of the people, is neither to be overlooked nor concealed. Against this error, which, if persisted in, cannot but prove fatal to the cause in which we are engaged, the voice of earnest expostulation must be raised; and the assurance, again and again reiterated, that, be the members of this Board faithful and indefatigable as they may, though they offer up their time and substance as a sacrifice, though they speak with the tongues of men and angels, yet that, without the coöperation of the people, their labors in this behalf must be in vain. The people must come to the rescue! The legislator, the capitalist, the man of letters, must enlist for life, and take their places in the ranks of the great army of progress. And where, if not there, should they be found? How can the legislator more faithfully subserve the interests of his constituents, and more effectually protect their rights, than by providing the means of education for their children? What surer guaranty can the capitalist find for the security of his investments, than is to be found in the sense of a community morally and intellectually enlightened? And how can the man of letters more faithfully fulfill his mission, than in teaching the people? The press,—than which there is no mightier agent in giving a character to the age,—the press must speak! speak, too, not in the low mutterings of the distant thunder, which tells of danger remote, but in the crashing peal which breaks over our heads. The pulpit must speak! Its voice of warning and of exhortation must be lifted up;—this "bread of life" must cease to be the "show bread" of the sanctuary,—it must be broken for the people. In the council chamber of the State, in the halls of legislation, in the lyceum, in the scenes of social intercourse and public debate, in the house of God, and in the village school-house, must the voices of true-hearted men be heard, until, touched by the electric spark, the dark and lowering cloud which now hangs over us shall burst, and its waters descend, to refresh and fertilize a parched and barren soil; until this people, this whole people, shall be aroused to a consciousness of their duties and their dangers. Then, and not until then, will the free school of Maine fulfill its mission."

MASSACHUSETTS.

We have received the following among other educational documents, from the old Commonwealth.

Tenth Annual Report of the Board of Education, and of the Secretary of the Board, for 1846. *p* 206.

Abstract of the Massachusetts School Returns for 1846–7.

Common School Journal. Vol. IX, for 1847. *p.* 415.

Meeting of the Essex County Teachers' Association held in Salem, October 15*th and* 16*th,* 1847.

Proceedings of the Third Annual Meeting of the Massachusetts Teachers' Association, held at Springfield, Nov. 22*d and* 23*d,* 1847.

The Massachusetts Teacher, published and edited by a Committee of the Massachusetts Teachers' Association. Boston, J. Sawyer.

Annual Reports of the Public Schools of the City of Boston, 1847. *p.* 220.

Reports of Committees on the Ventilation of the School-houses of the City of Boston.

Annual Report of the Perkins Institution for the Blind, 1847.

Report on the State Manual Labor School.

Letter of Hon. Abbott Lawrence on a School of Practical Science.

Report on the Education of Idiots.

These and other school and education documents which we have received from friends of the cause in Massachusetts, show that the Old Bay State is not content with the abundant fruits which have been gathered from her former efforts in behalf of sound learning and universal education, but is doing more and more, every year, in the same direction.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

First Report of the Commissioner of Common Schools, (Professor Charles B. Haddock, of Dartmouth College,) for 1846.

In this document Professor Haddock discusses the subject of common schools with the facility of one familiar with their condition and their wants, and with the felicity of a ready writer. The Report shows conclusively that the schools of New Hampshire labor under the same difficulties which impair the usefulness of the common school elsewhere, and points to the remedies which have been found to be efficient in other States. The following extract exhibits the broad republican spirit in which the whole report is written.

"Popular liberty, equal laws, general happiness, seem to me impossible to be maintained, for any long time, in an uneducated community. The only means which the majority of men have for bettering their condition, and sustaining a competition with the more fortunate few, who

happen to have been born to wealth, or nurtured under peculiar advantages, is in themselves, in their power of thought, their ingenuity, their foresight, their moral energy,—just the traits brought out by means of the early discipline and instruction of the Common Schools. The only way of securing a republican equality, and, of course, an equal legislation, equal rights, and common privileges, is by general education. In physical strength men are nearly equal. In mental capacity they are scarcely less so. At least, neither bodily nor mental powers are distributed according to any distinctions of rank or social condition among men. The gifted mind, as well as the stalwart, is found in all states of life,—among the poor as often as among the rich, among the lowly no less than among the lofty; and therefore it is not possible that great inequalities of privilege should continue in a cultivated society. All advantage of the few over the many, all aristocratic superiority, is maintained by mind, and the instrumentalities which mind creates. There must first be an aristocracy of intellect before there can be an aristocracy of power. Popular ignorance is the soil for tyrants. Public intelligence and public virtue are the best securities of liberty and equal laws. In the long-run, it is impossible for oppression of the masses of society to be sustained by any means but their ignorance. The natural tendency of mind is to rise; moral energy is irrepressible; it is a natural power, which no artificial mechanism can confine; it is one of those elements of the social world, which, like the primal forces of nature, shut up and repressed, heave the ocean and the land. If we can secure the general education of the people,—the discipline of their intellectual and moral powers,—we do all which the condition of man allows for the perpetuation of liberty, and justice, and social happiness."

"To this New England education we owe our New England character. That character could hardly have been formed any where else. It required the freedom of our civil institutions and the discipline of our schools. And by these, in connection with the pulpit, it has been produced."

Professor Haddock's successor is Richard S. Rust, Esq., of Northfield, New Hampshire.

VERMONT.

First Annual Report of the State Superintendent, [*Hon. Horace Eaton*,] *of Common Schools, made to the Legislature, October*, 1846. *p.* 64.

This document includes, with the State Superintendent's Report, "*Extracts from Reports of County Superintendents*," and is one of the most valuable School Documents of the year. It shows clearly that the Common Schools of Vermont stood in as much need of a *rousing shake*, as the schools of any part of New England, and that the shake has been to some purpose. We shall make extracts for another number of the Journal.

NEW YORK.

Annual Report of the Superintendent (Hon. N. S. Benton) of Common Schools, submitted January, 1847.

Report of Executive Committee of the State Normal School for 1846.

Annual Register and Circular of the State Normal School for 1846.

District School Journal for 1847.

Teachers' Advocate for 1847.

Forty-first Annual Report of the Trustees of the Public School Society of New York, 1847.

These documents show that the common schools of the Empire State are in an improving condition, and at the same time we have seen in the public journals, notices of the proposed action of the Legislature in regard to the administration of the system, which if carried out, must arrest the progress of improvement. If the element of county supervision is struck out, and another equally efficient is not substituted, the authors of the measure and the Legislature which sanctions it, will richly deserve to be known as the greatest "architects of ruin" which have yet appeared in the educational history of New York.

NEW JERSEY.

Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Schools, (Dr. T. F. King, Perth Amboy,) of New Jersey, for 1847.

We regret to learn that for any cause Dr. King intends to close his connection with the public schools of New Jersey, where his labors have accomplished so much good.

The following notice of his labors is copied from the Teachers' Advocate. p. 122.

"Three or four years ago, when Dr. King entered upon the duties of State Superintendent, New Jersey, in respect to common schools, was in a truly deplorable condition. The schools for the masses were 'few and far between,' without due supervision, so far as we know, on the part either of the local or the State authorities,—there were no gatherings of the teachers for mutual aid and counsel—no educational meetings of any kind, looking to the elevation of the public schools,—no proper interest, apparently, in the parents of the children themselves,—in short, no strong, deep, and abiding feeling, in favor of what has been significantly styled 'The People's Colleges.' Thirty thousand dollars, it is true, were annually distributed among the school districts, upon condition (a condition not always met,) that each should raise for itself an additional sum, equal to the amount of its allotment from the State; and this done, all further care about the education of the people seemed to be wholly dismissed.

Such, briefly was the condition of things, when the first State Superintendent of New Jersey, in the person of Dr. King, commenced his career. At first, his operations were confined, we believe, to such only of the sev-

eral counties, as manifested, by invitation, a disposition to avail themselves of his aid, in raising or reviving their schools.

The counties of Essex and Passaic entered early with the State Superintendent upon the work of revival and reform. Educational meetings were called, the various schools were visited, public examinations, attended by audiences decidedly respectable, both in numbers and influence, were frequently held; and such was the influence of these things upon the general mind, that the condition of the common schools soon became one of the most moving topics of thought and conversation.

County after county followed the example of Essex and Passaic, till, at length, Teachers' Associations have been formed in almost every county in the State. The school-houses have been improved, better books, maps, and other educational instrumentalities have been introduced; the districts now *double*, by tax upon themselves, the amount of their allotment of money from the State; laws have been passed, requiring adequate attainments in the teachers; school examinations have become things of general note, and the press, hitherto silent on this subject, as the step of time, has at length come out with wonderful vigor, in furtherance of this noble movement. In the midst of all these things, with so much to encourage, prospective and retrospective, we cannot do otherwise than regret deeply, with the Newark Daily Advertiser, the contemplated resignation of Dr. King. It is true, he has, in this work, traveled over and over again, the entire territory of the State, labored, in season and out of season, in the endeavor to make New Jersey stand high in the matter of popular education; and all this without taking one single dollar from any but his own funds, even for the payment of his traveling expenses. Yet, discouraging as to most men such labor would seem, and heavy as is the tax upon his time and his talents, we do hope, if the State does not open the way, some other means may be made available to the purpose of retaining a public officer, whose endeavors have been so signally successful, and so generally satisfactory.

Since the above was in type, we have been informed that arrangements are in progress in the city of Newark, to make some public demonstration of the satisfaction with which Dr. King's labors have been received. A splendid silver pitcher is to be presented to him, addresses to be delivered on the occasion, &c. &c."

Owing to the delay in getting to press this Number of the Journal, we are able to enrich our pages with copious extracts from a pamphlet, giving the proceedings of an Educational Convention, held in Mount Holly on the 18th of November, 1847.

Extracts from a "*Report on Normal Schools*," made to the Convention of the Friends of Education, held at Mount Holly, on the 2d of December 1847, by a Committee consisting of Hon. Garret D. Wall, Dr. John Griscom, Prof. E. C. Wines, Peter V. Coppuck, Esq. and Rev. C. A. Kingsbury, appointed at a previous session of the same Convention, on the 18th of November.

The Committee introduce the subject, by presenting extracts from com-

munications received from various distinguished gentlemen, who have been called from their official relations to education, to bestow much thought on the professional education and training of teachers.

From the Hon. Wm. H. Seward, Ex-Governor of New York.

"The advantages resulting from the professional education of teachers, in what are called Normal Schools, are universally conceded among the friends of education in this State. If I had ever doubted on this subject, all my doubts would have been removed by the experiment of the institution in this city, which has been eminently successful. The ultimate operation of Normal Schools, will be to elevate the standard of public education, and of course the dignity of those to whom its labors are confided."

From the Rev. Wm. H. Campbell, D. D., Member of the Executive Committee of the New York State Normal School, and Secretary of the same.

"I may state, that I had doubts, when our Normal School was first started, as to the necessity of such an institution among us. * * * * But my opinion is entirely changed. * * * We have had at the Normal School from 150 to 200 yearly; of this number, three-fourths had been teachers in our Common Schools; and I will venture to predict, that, if you will go and ask them, 'Were you fit for your work before you came to the Normal School?' they would answer, 'No;' and let me add, they would answer truly. By this, I would not wish to be understood as declaring, that *all* were incompetent; but I do mean that three-fourths of them were; and all of them needed that kind of instruction which a Normal School affords, and for the want of which, they were far less efficient teachers than they now are.

Then, again, as to the facilities which existed before the institution of the Normal School, I have only to say, let a person who is well acquainted with our Academies, visit the Normal School but one day, and my word for it, he will grant, 'Here is an institution, affording immense facilities for the education of teachers—facilities which can be found in Normal Schools alone—facilities of such great value, that any man must be blinded by prejudice, who would oppose their existence.' Thus, sir, you perceive, that from a *doubter*, I have become convinced of the great value of the Normal School. My conviction is also the result of actual observation, and from this, I feel justified in saying, that a Normal School is indispensable in carrying out any State educational system."

From the Right Rev. Alonzo Potter, Bishop of Pennsylvania,—formerly Professor in Union College, and member of the Executive Committee of the New York State Normal School.

"I rejoice to hear that the State of New Jersey is moving in respect to the education and training of teachers for Common Schools. It is beyond doubt the most essential step in the great work of improving, and, as it were, regenerating our system of Common School Instruction. I had occasion for many years, to observe closely the progress of this system in New York; and the result of my experience was, that, though other measures were necessary and most important, yet that all of them would depend very much for their efficacy, on the means which might be pro-

vided for the preparation of teachers. The establishment of the State Normal School was, therefore, looked forward to as the essential complement to all other plans. The experiment has been tried, and the results are most cheering. New life and vigor seem to be infused into the Schools throughout the whole State."

From Hon. Horace Mann, Secretary of the Board of Education, Mass.

"I regard Normal Schools as the one indispensable thing for carrying forward a system of Common Schools. All other favoring influences are not equal to this one alone. If this can have an opportunity for a fair display of its efficiency, one might barter all other things for it, and still make a good bargain. This may seem to be strong language; but it is fully ratified by my observations abroad, and my experience at home.

Perhaps we had a constituency in Massachusetts, which, in point of intelligence, would not suffer by comparison with any other part of our country. It would be natural, therefore, to suppose, that our teachers would not, as a whole, be inferior to the teachers of any other State. Such, I believe to be the fact. Yet, since the opening of our Normal Schools, the character of sections of the State, where their influence has been most direct and immediate, has been lifted up, as it were, bodily, from the comparatively low condition in which it was before. Ten years ago, we had no such teachers as we have now. The best we then had, would now be considered mediocre only. The rear ranks of the then teachers, have now fallen out of service altogether. I think we may say, without vanity, that a reform of no inconsiderable consequence, has been effected in our Schools. Normal Schools have done more to produce this change, than all other instrumentalities united. Without them, I should feel, not only as though my right arm was cut off, but as though both my arms were cut off. And the most beautiful feature in the whole experiment has been, that even those who reviled and ridiculed the Normal Schools, have been compelled to copy their improved methods of instruction, and to modify their own methods of preserving order and administering discipline. Thus the schools have been copied by those who condemn them. * * * * I do not know an intelligent and unprejudiced man, in Massachusetts, who is opposed to this institution; while, on the other hand, those who know it best, approve it most highly.

I speak of facts as they have existed within my own knowledge. It surely must be unnecessary with a gentleman of your intelligence, to attempt to prove by a course of reasoning, that training the young mind is a great work, and that those who are taught how to train it, will have greater success in their work, than the ignorant. If a man who has arrived at years of discretion, does not see this truth to be manifest in all the pursuits of life, it is not argument that he needs, but capacity to comprehend argument. How it can happen that a man shall need to serve an apprenticeship to make a boot, but can instruct and train a child by instinct, is more than I can comprehend."

From Hon. Edward Everett, President of Harvard University.

"The public opinion in this State has been strongly pronounced in favor of institutions of this description. Three have been established by a union of public and private liberality; and, although the establishments

are on a frugal scale of expense, and their operations proportionably limited, the result, I believe, is entirely satisfactory.

It seems quite evident, that the art of teaching,—an art so difficult and so important,—should require some special training for its attainment. If it did not, it would differ from all other intellectual arts. Although some individuals, in consequence of happy natural gifts, may rise to eminence as instructors, without having had the advantage of any training to that pursuit, yet these can only be regarded as exceptions to the general rule. Even persons of this description, who do well without instruction, would probably have done better with it.

The fact is, that hardly any teacher is, as such, self-formed. He employs, as an instructor, the methods which were in use at the school where he received his own education some years,—perhaps a good many years,—before. His teacher, in like manner, probably followed traditionary methods. Such a course can result in nothing but the perpetuation of errors, and must end in degeneracy. It is only by making a regular pursuit of the business of education—and having institutions where it is expressly cultivated and taught—where improvements will be struck out, or promptly examined and adopted, when proposed from abroad, and found to be real and substantial—that a highly respectable and efficient class of instructors can be formed."

From the Hon. John G. Palfrey, Secretary of State, Massachusetts, and formerly Professor in Cambridge University, and Editor of the North American Review.

"As Chairman of a Committee of our House of Representatives, I drew and defended the Resolves of March 3d, 1842, which placed Normal Schools on a permanent footing, and established School District Libraries. I did more for others' good that day, than in all the rest of my life put together."

From D. P. Page, Esq., Principal of the New York Normal School.

"In our State there is no doubt in the public mind, but that teachers should be specially educated; the question now started, is, ought they to be *educated by the State?* This is the view taken by Mr. McElligott, of New York. The answer to that, it seems to me, is, it must be done by the State, or not be done at all. The pay of teachers is not generally high enough yet to warrant much outlay of time and capital by the teachers themselves, in their preparation,—and they must be encouraged to do it, by having a portion of the expense paid for them. Schools for teachers, started without public aid, have failed, I believe, in every instance; at any rate, they have degenerated into mere Academies, in which the pupils have, as elsewhere, been allowed *to choose their* own studies, and, of *course*, to choose to *neglect* the *elementary branches*, most necessary for them to learn.

The State is to be benefited, by the better teachers, when prepared; and I see no reason why the State should not pay for it, at least in part; and, if each county is properly represented in the School, it is not contrary to our institutions, so far as I can see. In the mean time, as teachers are improved, the people will raise the pay; it is so in our experience. There is an increasing demand for our teachers to take charge of the more

important Schools, at higher wages,—and many, by spending a year at our School, have gone home to receive double the pay they ever had before."

Your Committee feel that they can add little to the force of these letters,—so full, so clear, so emphatic in their approval and support of Seminaries for the education of teachers. They do not doubt, that, had they extended their correspondence to a sufficient breadth, they might have obtained hundreds of similar opinions, from the best cultivated minds of the country.

That we cannot have good Schools without qualified teachers, and that we cannot have a supply of qualified teachers without training them to their business, are propositions quite of the nature of axioms. The relation of cause and effect, expressed by them is so obvious, that it is astonishing that any man can fail to perceive it, and that, perceiving it, he can for a moment hesitate as to the duty, which such a truth imposes on society. This duty, plainly, is, to provide for the professional training of school masters. So deeply was Mr. Cousin, the eminent French Philosopher and Educationist, impressed with this truth, that he declares it as his opinion, that the State has done nothing for popular education, if it does not watch that those who devote themselves to teaching, be well prepared. This, in the opinion of your Committee, is one of the very first duties of a State with regard to Schools. Without it, all other legislation on the subject, whatever partial advantages it may result in, must stop short of the full benefits, at which it ought to aim, and might accomplish.

There can be no doubt, that among the principal causes of the defectiveness of our Public Schools, must be reckoned the want of a higher order of qualification in our teachers, as a class What is the remedy for this evil? The establishment of Seminaries for the education of teachers. School masters must be trained to their business, as lawyers, and merchants, and blacksmiths are. Institutions of the kind in question, the Committee regard as emphatically the intellectual want of the age. It is not to be doubted, it cannot be doubted, by any intelligent and reflecting mind, that the most efficacious means of securing qualified teachers, is to be found in Seminaries, where a number of young men or women, intending to become teachers, are collected together, receive a common instruction in the subjects required for the schools in which they propose to teach, have lessons given them in the science and art of teaching, and practice the art under intelligent supervision. In this way, and, your Committee believe, in no other, will the occupation of teaching be raised to the dignity of a profession. The teacher's respectability will then be secured, by the considerable attainments exacted of him. A strong *esprit de corps* will be produced among masters, which cannot fail to interest them powerfully in their profession, to attach them to it, to elevate it in their eyes, and to stimulate them to continued efforts at self-improvement. Thus, also, will a standard of examination in the theory and practice of education be furnished, which may be fairly exacted of candidates, who have chosen a different way to obtain access to the profession.

The larger portion of the Report is devoted to the consideration of the objections usually urged against the proposed measure. From this portion we make a few extracts.

"It is alleged by some, that there is no necessity for Normal Schools, inasmuch as the business of instruction, like other social and private wants, is regulated by the commercial law of demand and supply. With deference the Committee submit, that such persons assume an analogy, where no analogy really exists, and thus make a mere fancy the basis of a logical deduction. In order to constitute a case, in which the mercantile law of demand and supply should have any applicability, there must be a *felt* want in the person or persons, who are to make the application. And the impulse to meet that want, must, in every case, come from within. Thus, there is an inner feeling, which impels a hungry man to seek food, a naked man to provide himself with clothing, a luxurious man to gratify his appetites, a vain man to adorn his person, and a literary man to surround himself with books. But there is no such impulse from within, urging a barbarous community to civilize itself, or an ignorant community to educate itself. Neither civilization, in the one case, nor knowledge, in the other, is felt as a want. Hence, as your Committee believe, there is no well authenticated instance in all history, of an original and indigenous civilization. The land of the Pharaohs lighted her lamp of knowledge at some earlier Eastern flame. Egypt and Phenicia civilized Greece. Greece, in her turn, planted the seeds of letters and refinement along the shores of Italy. The Roman civilization perpetually re-produced itself in the conquered provinces. Even the semi-civilization of the Aztecs was not indigenous, having, in all probability, been borrowed from Eastern Asia, at some remote period, now lost in the mists of antiquity. And Gale, in his great work, entitled The Court of the Gentiles, with an industry of research and an extent of learning nothing short of wonderful, has traced the entire civilization of the world up to its fountain head, in the lively Oracles. Precisely upon the same principles, as a writer in the Edinburgh Review ably and lucidly argues, an uneducated society has no inherent and natural tendency to educate itself. The impulse to that end must come from above, from those who have created the want, which the others do not feel. How many centuries did the little community in the Ban de la Roche wallow in the mire of its ignorance, without one aspiration or effort after a higher state, till Stouber and Oberlin went among them? In the nature of things, it is impossible for persons of uncultivated and torpid minds, to know to what an extent education exalts, enlarges, and stimulates the understanding; how much it raises, refines and strengthens the moral feelings; nor how incalculably it increases the happiness, independence, and usefulness of its possessors. Hence, such persons will never seek it self-moved. They must be acted upon from without, by those who are impressed with an experimental sense of its manifold advantages. Adam Smith, himself the great expounder and champion of the economical law of demand and supply, expressly excepts education from the operation of it.

Again, it is said, it is not so much teachers that we need, nor schools for the education of teachers, as it is a higher compensation for their services. Let the districts pay liberally for the work required, and compe-

tent teachers will soon make their appearance. This is plausible and as, your Committee believe, only plausible. Few tasks are harder than that of finding a really accomplished and able teacher, as all will agree, who have had much experience in the search for them. Try the experiment of advertising for a teacher, at a salary of $600 to $800 per annum. Not five per cent. of the applicants would be found truly competent, in the judgment of any man, who knows what teaching is, and appreciates the high order of qualification needful in the office of an educator of youth. The Committee grant, that, if all the schools in the country really held out the offer of a liberal remuneration for the labor of teaching, men, and women would seek the requisite qualification for the office of teachers, at whatever cost of time and money. But even if the offer should be thus universally made at this moment, many years would elapse before it could receive a full and satisfactory response. The teachers could not be had to answer it, and for the simple reason that they are not now in being. And when at length it should be met in all its latitude and longitude, through what agency would the result be obtained? Precisely that which is now proposed to institute,—Teachers' Seminaries—which would, in the case supposed, spring up, as if by magic, throughout the length and breadth of the land. But, alas, the case is but a suppositious one, not likely to be realized through many a weary decade of years, in which an enlightened and liberal patriotism and philanthropy shall hold but a divided empire with ignorance, insensibility, and misguided economy. The fallacy, noticed under the last head, is at the bottom of the opinion we are now considering. They who hold this opinion, do so upon the principle, that the supply will be always equal to the demand. Granted. But a high order of qualifications in teachers is not *felt* as a want; of course there is no corresponding demand. This is so far from being the case, that the preference of incompetent teachers, who will work cheap, over able ones at a fair compensation, has passed into a proverb. The want of a dinner, a coat, a fire, an ox, a plough, is *felt;* but not the want of a good teacher. Nor will this want ever be felt, till a pressure from without, awakens the sense of it. And it is exactly this outward pressure, awakening our torpid sensibilities, that we seek to obtain through a Normal School. What would be the operation of such an Institution? It would send forth its successive corps of well taught, well disciplined, well trained teachers. To these, the best and most lucrative schools in the whole State, would immediately open their doors. But even these best schools, under their more enlightened and able administration, would rise to a point of excellence, and produce fruits of knowledge, manhood, and virtue, before unattained and unknown. These improved schools would become so many beacon lights, scattered over the surface of the State, towards which all eyes would be drawn, as if by an irresistible magnetism. Mind would be stirred. Thought would be awakened. Inquiry would be set on foot. Results would be weighed. Observations would be gathered up. And the conviction would be brought home; with irresistible power to men's business and bosoms, that experienced and able teachers are a priceless treasure; and that their services would be cheap in the comparison, at double, treble, quadruple the compensation, ever before paid to ignorance and imbecililty. Then, indeed, the doctrine of demand and supply would begin to have some ap-

plicability to the case in question; for high, well trained educational talent would begin to be *felt* as a want: and men would have an inward monitor, urging them to seek and appropriate such talent, at any reasonable cost, in the intellectual and moral culture of their children. And when truly good schools, conducted by educated and experienced teachers, shall have been universally, or even generally established, then, but not till then, may the principle that the demand will regulate the supply be safely left to its natural and inherent force, to work out, through all coming time, the results so ardently desired, both by the patriot and the philanthropist.

Again, it is objected against Normal Schools, that they are an importation from Prussia, a monarchy, a despotism,—well enough adapted to such a government, but unsuited to the genius and temper of ours. What is the first great principle, which the Prussian law recognizes as the basis of the system of public instruction? The necessity of a thorough education of the whole people. What is the second? The duty of Government to provide it for them. Are these anti-republican principles? The Committee cannot perceive it. But how are these principles carried out in their application? First, by the provision of an educated and able body of instructors, through the Normal Schools,—a class of institutions, unequaled, as all competant observers testify, in the thoroughness, practicalness, pure intellectuality, and efficiency of their methods of mental culture and development; and, secondly by the establishment of popular schools, where all the children of the State receive the benefit of their enlightened services. Are these anti-democratic proceedings? What! Shall it be said that governmental provision for the training of teachers and the efficient education of the people is proper where an Autocrat reigns; but that it is contrary to the spirit of a Government, whose very existence is in the breath of popular intelligence? But what is most truly admirable in the Prussian system, is not the laws of education only, but the spirit that framed and pervades the laws,—the full appreciation of the dignity and objects of men, of the duties of citizens, of the powers and equality and high inheritance of the human soul. It was this view of the Prussian system, that drew from Bulwer that bitter sarcasm on his own England,—'In that country, the people are said to be less *free* than in ours!—how immeasurably more the people are *regarded!*' And have we not lately seen this very education, thus by authority of law imparted to the masses of the Prussian people, producing its appropriate fruits, in wringing from the sovereign of the country, the long promised constitution? Nor can it for a moment be supposed, that the people, having once tasted the exercise of power would willingly relinquish it. Indeed, your Committee would not be surprised if the ultimate issue of this general enlightenment of the popular mind, should be the overthrow of that very throne, which now dispenses these beams of knowledge. It would rather be a matter of surprise, if the one-man principle could permanently maintain its footing, against the liberalizing influence of universal education.

The Committee would respectfully inquire how it is anti-republican for a State to educate the teachers of its future citizens? Gentlemen who urge this objection, would be very unwilling to hear it ascribed to a mere prejudice; nor would the Committee venture any such suggestion.

There must, then, be some principle, on which it is founded. What is that principle ? The Committee can conceive of none, nor do they believe there is any, whose legitimate issue would not be the overthrow of all our Public Schools. It is urged that the establishment of a Normal School would be an infringement of the rightful liberty of the citizen. Then the establishment by law of any school would constitute such infringement. Once admit the principle that the Government of a State may interfere at all with the education of the people, and the mode, extent, and agencies of that interference, become mere questions of expediency. To say that it is constitutional for the State to teach Arithmetic, but unconstitutional to teach Conic Sections, is mere driveling, and savors more of the demagogue, than of the patriot and statesman. So likewise it strikes your Committee as equally absurd, to maintain that the State may constitutionally appropriate funds to *teach* the children and youth, and yet, that she may not, without a dangerous infringement of liberty, employ a portion of her treasure to qualify her sons and her daughters to give the instruction, which she authorizes and ordains. Nobody will be impressed in the Normal School, and compelled to devote himself to the business of teaching. They who come will come voluntarily. Nor is it proposed to force the Normal graduates upon any school that does not want them. Every district in the State will be left in the free enjoyment of its right to choose such teachers, and upon such terms, as it may please.

In conclusion, the Committee would press the exhortation upon all the members of this Convention, to make, each for himself, the firm resolve, that a new impulse shall go forth from this place and this hour, to stimulate and perfect our schools. 'To unfold the creative talent and genius of our people,' it has been well said by an eloquent divine,* 'must be one of our first studies ; for in this our best hopes of prosperity lie. We can better afford any waste, than the waste of talent ; and it is deplorable to reflect on the immense fund of talent we have slumbering in unconsciousness, or only half awakened, by reason of the defectiveness of our schools. The great first problem at the root of all prosperity, is to produce the most condensed virtue and intellectual capacity possible ; for if we may give to one man the capacity of three, then he will produce three times as much, without consuming any more. So if you can open as much of manhood in ten as in thirty thousand people, (which is far from difficult,) you will have only ten for expenditure, and thirty for production. Therefore, if you wish to make a city of ten thousand swell to a population of thirty thousand, the readiest and the surest way is to make the ten thousand worth thirty thousand, by the stimulus of a right education. Neither need you be concerned beforehand how the ten thousand will produce a three-fold value by their industry. They will determine that for themselves. Given so much of manhood, as a creative power, it will be sure to appear in ways of its own.' It is, therefore, as your Committee believe, a result perfectly within our grasp, to give to our little State of four hundred thousand people, the productive power and energy of a commonwealth, numbering more than a million of inhabitants. Is there not something stirring and kindling in this thought ?

* Rev. Dr. Bushnell, of Hartford, Connecticut.

Should it not rouse us, one and all, to a united, earnest, and persevering effort to place our Common Schools on their true basis, and give to them all the efficiency of which they are susceptible ? The cause of education is emphatically the cause of the people. Its importance transcends and overshadows that of most, if not all others, which fall within the scope of legislative action. Other measures may change, and yield, and be forgotten, as the national mind changes or subsides beneath them. But this is a measure which creates the national mind, and which insures, by its firm and broad foundations, the solidity and durability of every other structure. A system of popular schools, therefore, comprehensive in its range of studies, thorough in its modes of mental discipline, and pure in its every influence is the sheet-anchor of our social system. It is the bond of our Union ; the ward and keeper of our Constitution ; the charter of our happiness, our safety, and our rights.

The Committee conclude their report by recommending the general circulation of petitions among the citizens of the State, praying the Legislature to pass a Bill for the establishment of a Normal School in this Commonwealth."

The following Form of a petition is appended to the report.

To the Honorable, the Senate and General Assembly of the State of New Jersey.

The petition of the undersigned, citizens of the State of New Jersey, respectfully represents to your Honorable Bodies, that in the opinion of your petitioners, the system of public instruction in this Commonwealth, demands some further legislation at your hands. Your petitioners are not insensible to the wise and paternal care heretofore, from time to time, extended by the Legislature to this great and paramount public interest. But they believe that still another measure is wanting to the efficient action of the system. The complaint is general, and your petitioners believe, well founded, that the teachers of our Common Schools, as a class, are deficient in the qualifications needful to the effective discharge of their high and solemn duties. This is a sad deficiency, and it is deplorable to reflect what a waste of precious time and talent results from it. Your petitioners would feel more sorrow in this contemplation, if they did not believe that a remedy for the evil can be readily found. This remedy they believe to lie in the special education of teachers for the duties of their profession. The professions of Law, Medicine, and Divinity, have schools for the education of those who aspire to their honors. Commerce, manufacturers, and the mechanic arts require a long and severe apprenticeship in all who would pursue them with success. So ought it to be in education. An exact and rigid preparatory discipline is as essential to the formation of a good teacher, as of a good lawyer, doctor, merchant, farmer, or artizan. Such discipline can be had, as a general rule, only through the agency of schools for the professional education of teachers.

Your petitioners, therefore, respectfully ask your Honorable Bodies, that you will pass a law, establishing a Normal School, with such provisions, and under such restrictions and guaranties, as to your wisdom shall seem meet.

And your petitioners, as in duty bound, will ever pray, &c.

The Report of the Committee was ordered by the Convention to be printed for general distribution throughout the State, and the establishment of a Normal School commended to the Legislature.

PENNSYLVANIA.

We have not received the Annual Report of the Superintendent of Common Schools in Pennsylvania, for 1847. We extract the following notice of this document, from the United States Gazette.

"The appropriation of $200,000, made last year, was subject to a deduction of $11,769 for certain arrearages of former years; leaving the sum of $188,231 for distribution among the accepting districts, being a proportion of forty-nine cents to each taxable inhabitant. The number of accepting school districts in the State, at the present time, is 1067, and of non-accepting districts, 158, which shows a decrease in the non-accepting districts, of nineteen during the year. A table, placed in the appendix, shows that the increase in the number of accepting districts, has been gradual, but uninterrupted, since 1835, when the whole number of School districts in the State was 907, and the accepting districts only 536. The average length of time, during the year, the schools were kept open in 1835, was three months and twelve days. The average of time during 1846, was five months and one day. The whole number of teachers then was 808—they now number 8468. The whole number of scholars then was 32,544—the whole number now is 338,805. The cost of instruction has been diminished, when considered with reference to the number taught, for in 1835, the expense was $193,972.90, and during the past year, 486,475.74. In these calculations, Philadelphia City and County, we believe, is not included, as it has a separate organization. There is reason to believe that in a few years more, we shall see every district in the State accepting the provisions of the act.

Yet while the schools are growing in favor, it is evident there is a depreciation in many parts of the State, in their effectiveness, a defect to be studiously guarded against, because public opinion rules so strongly, that if once unpopular, it would be impossible to sustain the system. The Superintendent speaks rightly, when he asserts, that 'where the highest school taxes are levied, and the schools best conducted, the law is the most popular, and the taxes most cheerfully paid by the citizens,' for the obvious reason that means are thus afforded for the solid improvement of their children, the knowledge of which is an ample reward for the expense incurred. Where schools are kept open but a brief period, and crowded with children, order cannot be maintained, nor the directness of a proper course of study adhered to, and with a want of good results there inevitably comes a dislike of the schools. To obviate this difficulty, the superintendent thinks that such latitude should be given to the Directors, as regards the amount of taxes to be levied, as will enable them to raise a sum sufficient to support a proper number of schools during six months of the year at least.

The subject of the incompetency of Teachers, is dwelt on with the emphasis its great importance deserves. Its intimate connection with the vitality and usefulness of the system, brings it home to the most serious contemplation of those, who have the power of remedying what is and must always be felt as one of the greatest difficulties the system can labor under. If our standard of education is to be maintained at the mark assigned, the teachers must be competent. The pupils cannot learn much,

when instructors have but little to impart: and even when there is much knowledge on the part of the Teacher, it should be accompanied by a method so simple and accurate, that the unformed minds which are exercised by it, should receive not only the information imparted, but a bias toward the orderly acquirement of knowledge, which will keep it within bounds during more enlarged and advanced studies. The mind should be informed in the uses of regular habits, or the instruction will lose half of its effect.

Teachers should be paid liberally, and it is only by doing so, and by instituting a rigid and enlarged examination into qualifications for the office, that the remedy can be applied to the deficiency. Pennsylvania has too much pride in her schools, to avoid doing that which it is essential to the continued success of the system she should at once accomplish, and we look for enlarged and liberal provision to meet the want. When the benefits resulting are considered, the question of public education becomes much more than a matter of money, and we trust our legislators will so regard it.

For the better administration of the schools, the Superintendent recommends that the examination of Teachers should be public; that County Superintendents be created, and each of them be required to sign all certificates of competency given to those teachers examined in their several counties.

He renews his suggestion concerning the establishment of 'a periodical newspaper, devoted to the advancement of the cause of Common School Education,' and referring again to his previously expressed opinion, that in many places the Schools are too much crowded with very young children, especially in towns and villages where the schools are open only three or four months in the year, he suggests that a discretion be allowed to Directors, as to the admission of children under six years of age. The continued agitation, in some districts, of the question of 'School or no School,' is very injurious to the system, and he asks for such a modification of the law, that when a district has once accepted the provisions of the law, it shall always continue an accepting district.

Some remarks are indulged in, concerning the use to which the system may be brought, in time, in imparting knowledge of the practical duties of life, both for males and females, and the report closes with a reference to the gratifying condition of the schools in the City and County of Philadelphia."

We have before us the "*Twenty-eighth Annual Report of Controllers of the Public Schools of the City and County of Philadelphia for* 1846," together with a very valuable "Report on the High School," by Prof. Hart—making a pamphlet of 226 pages. The document is one of the most valuable contributions made to the educational literature of the country. The High School at Philadelphia is a noble institution,—and its success has already had a powerful influence in directing the attention of the friends of school improvement, to the establishment of schools of the same grade, in all of our large cities.

MARYLAND.

Our information respecting the state of education in Maryland is confined to the Public Schools of Baltimore—and of these we have nothing later than the "*Seventeenth Annual Report of the Commissioners of Public Schools, for* 1846." This document speaks well for the faithfulness of the Commissioners, and indicates a beginning in the right direction on the part of the City. The expenses of the system amounted in 1846, to $49,945.

VIRGINIA.

We have received the "*Annual Report of the Second Auditor (Hon. J. Brown Jr.) on the State of the Literary Fund, for* 1846, *and the Proceedings of the School Commissioners in the different Counties where the District Free Schools have been established.*" This document shows that there is a spirit abroad in Virginia which will ere long place her public schools under a more efficient system.

As we go south beyond Virginia we have no information till we reach Florida, and Louisiana.

EDUCATION IN THE SOUTHERN STATES.

We were rejoiced to read the following Circular to the People of the South, from the pen of our old friend and fellow-laborer in the educational field at the North. We know of no man more competent to give practical suggestions in the organization and administration of a school system than S. S. Randall, Esq., late Deputy Superintendent of Common Schools of New York.

"*To the friends of Education in the Southern States.*

"A great educational movement, having for its object the early and thorough elementary instruction of the young in all those branches conducive to practical utility and individual and social well-being, is now in progress at the North, the East, and the West, under auspices eminently favorable to its full success. The enlightened free school system of Massachusetts—a system which has been in operation for nearly two centuries—has dispensed the invaluable blessing of a good education over every section of that ancient Commonwealth, while the ample fund set apart for that purpose in Connecticut, and exclusively appropriated to the purposes of public instruction, has effected a similar state of things within her borders. Rhode Island, Maine, Vermont and New Hampshire have recently organized systems of common school education abundantly adequate to the wants of their respective population; and New Jersey has taken her station side by side with them in an energetic effort to place the means of intellectual and moral culture within the reach and at the command of every child of the State. The admirable organization and complete efficiency of the New York system has already brought into her eleven thousand district schools, upwards of seven hundred and fifty thousand of her children, and the number is annually increasing in the average ratio of more than twenty thousand in each year of its stately and beneficent progress. Her system, combining, as it does, the various excellencies, and avoiding, to a very great extent, the defects of those which in point of time preceded it, has attracted the attention and excited the active emulation not only of a large portion of the Western States and Territories, including Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, &c., but of Texas at the South and Canada at the North; in both of which it has been successfully introduced within the compass of a

few years past. During the past year an association of influential and efficient persons from the North, East, and West, has been formed, for the purpose of diffusing the means and resources of an adequate elementary education throughout the entire valley of the Mississippi, and ex-Governer Slade, of Vermont, aided by an effective corps of well-trained instructors, has placed himself in the van of this great and most beneficial movement.

Thus it will be seen, that in every other portion of the Union, from Maine on the North to Texas on the South—from the Atlantic coast on the East to the verge of the Rocky Mountains in the far West—the respective State and municipal authorities, the friends of education and the people generally, have united in the most permanent and efficient measures for the extension and diffusion of knowledge throughout the masses of those who are to succeed them in the inheritance of our free institutions. Rightly discerning the 'signs of the times,' wisely interpreting those lessons of sound policy so earnestly inculcated by the sainted Washington; and conscious that the responsible mission of the American republic, can only be fulfilled by the universal and thorough education of her sons and daughters—the statesmen, patriots, and philanthropists of the land have taken their stand upon this great and impregnable principle; and we are called upon by every consideration which can appeal to brethren of the same common family—citizens of the same inestimable Union, and equally interested in the perpetuity and abiding welfare of the same cherished institutions—to cooperate timely, heartily and efficiently in this noble enterprise. Shall we not cheerfully respond to the appeal? Shall we not rivet the bonds of our glorious Union far more effectually than can ever be accomplished by political combinations, by party watchwords, by the most skillful legislation or the most successful appeal to individual, local or sectional interests?

The citizens of the Southern States, individually considered, and especially those who have the means of bestowing a suitable education upon their children, are, it is true, in no respect behind their brethren of the other portions of the Union, in providing those facilities for elementary instruction which the spirit of the age and the demands of an advanced civilization require. But, in comparison with the other States, to which reference has been made, their respective Legislatures have failed to provide that permanent *fund* which is requisite not only to aid, stimulate and encourage individual and social exertion in this respect, but to ensure the proper mental and moral cultivation of that large class in every community which is destitute of the means and occasionally of the inclination to furnish an adequate education for their children. The genius and spirit of our republican institutions require that all classes and every grade of citizens be placed as far as possible upon footing of equality in this respect, and it is for all practical purposes no less requisite to the future welfare of the State than to that of its citizens who are favored beyond their fellows in worldly fortune, that each individual of the rising generation, whatever may be his present station and prospects, whether the heir apparent of countless thousands or the child of hopeless poverty and misfortune, should participate fully and freely in the blessings of education. By no other means and in no other way can Governments succeed in fulfilling the object of their creation, or individual and social rights be uniformly respected and maintained. The laborer's hardy negligent offspring of to-day may, through some of the innumerable 'chances and changes' of capricious fortune, become the wealthy and influential proprietor of to-morrow, and he is at all events and in every contingency certain at no distant period to possess an equal voice with that of the wealthiest in the administration of the affairs of the Republic. He is certain to play his part, either for good or for evil, and on a larger or smaller scale, in the varied evolutions of the political and social circle in which for the time being his destiny may be cast; and if his title to companionship and to a fair participation in the advantages which civilization brings in its train, is not otherwise recognized, it will assert itself ultimately and with a fearful power in some of those violent outbreaks which from time to time electrify the public mind and carry desolation to the hearth of some innocent or hapless victim.

The State is not only called upon to provide a specific and ample *fund* from its resources, to be expended under proper restraints and supervision, in encouraging the well directed efforts of individuals in this department of the social fabric, but, in order to render its aid effective, it should create such an *organization* as may appear best adapted to secure the object in view. This organization should be uniform, simple and efficient—so constituted as to enlist the active agency of the inhabitants of the several districts, their officers and teachers, while at the same time, it should fulfill with regard to other portions of the State and to the authorities charged with its gen-

eral supervision, all the objects and purposes of its creation. In the absence of such an organization a very slight interest will be felt in the scattered and isolated institutions for public instruction: teachers will become negligent and remiss; the public and private funds will be virtually wasted, and the great work of education will speedily fall into incompetent and worthless hands.

Having for several years been practically and intimately conversant, in an official capacity, with the beneficial operations of the system of public instruction now in progress in New York, and having during that period actively participated in the various movements which under the immediate auspices of a succession of able and enlightened statesmen, have placed the interests of popular education of that State upon an elevated and commanding basis, the undersigned feels great confidence in commending to the earnest attention of his fellow citizens in the South, the prominent principles and efficient organization of that system. Many of its details may perhaps be found impracticable in communities so sparsely settled as in portions of these States, but the practical recognition of the right of every child, destined hereafter to assume the responsibilities and perform the duties of a citizen of a free Republic, to such an education as shall enable him intelligently to acquit himself of those high functions, and of the corresponding *duty* of the State to provide the requisite facilities for the full enjoyement of this right will not fail to lead to the adoption of such measures, and to secure such an organization as shall be found best adapted to the wants and most in accordance with existing habits and institutions of different localities. Desirous of contributing to the extent of his ability to the promotion of the interests of elementary education in this part of the Union, of which he has become a permanent resident, the undersigned proposes, with the consent and approbation of those who may be concerned in the supervision and direcion of this branch of public service, to deliver a series of familiar lectures or addresses on this subject during the ensuing fall and winter, wherever, in the judgment of the friends of education and those interested in our public and private institutions of learning, such a course may be deemed desirable or beneficial. With no other ambition than to render himself as useful as possible in this familiar and cherished field of labor, he respectfully and cordially solicits the frank co-operation and friendly regards of all who, in any station or position, may be disposed to lay in the mental and moral culture of the youth of our beloved country, the strong foundation of its greatness, prosperity, and permanent well-being.

S. S. RANDALL,
Late Deputy Superintendent of Common Schools of New York.
Prospect Hill, *Fairfax, Co.*, (*Va.*)
August, 1847.

OHIO.

Annual Report of the Secretary of State, (*Hon. S. Galloway*,) *on the Common Schools of Ohio for* 1846. *Submitted Jan.* 1847.

Ohio Common School Journal, edited by A. D. Lord, and published at Columbus, for 1847.

Eighteenth Annual Report of the Trustees and Visiters of Common Schools in Cincinnati, for 1847.

Mr. Galloway does not hesitate "to present a truthful picture of the" education of the youth of Ohio, although by doing so he "may abase his own pride, and the honor of his State."

"The whole sum appropriated this year, from the various public funds, $288,660 55 may be regarded by many as a liberal appropriation; but how inadequate to our wants,—how inconsistent with our appropriations for other objects,—how inferior in generosity and greatness to the action of other States. Year after year our State Treasury has been *bled*, by the prescription of the Legislature, for canals, turnpikes, &c., until the patient has lost almost the signs of life. Some of those objects, which

have absorbed more money than the total amount distributed by legislative bounty to common schools since the foundation of our government, now lie in comparative ruins,—monuments of reckless prodigality. The paramount and most precious interest of the State—the development of the intellectual and moral energies of those who are to mould its character and determine its destiny, is sacrificed, to gratify the rage for speculation, and advance schemes for pecuniary aggrandizement. We shall stand out, in the history of the world, as an anomaly, if our future career is not marked by destructive and frightful evidence of a mistaken policy, in preferring the magnificence of an enlarged and improved territory, to the noble grandeur of a people majestic in the attainments of that highest possible civilization—the full cultivation of the intellectual and moral nature of all classes and conditions."

"Ohio cannot long maintain her present position on the subject of education. The improvement and enterprise which characterize other movements, must soon animate and advance the common school system, or it will sink into ignominy and ruin. No one entertaining the pride proper for a citizen, can abuse himself by entertaining the idea that other States, less capable by resources, of high achievement, shall tower above Ohio in all those enduring elements which indicate advanced civilization, and invest human nature with imperishable renown. Our extensive and fertile territory, commercial, agricultural and manufacturing resources, teeming population, and all those advantages and facilities which so pre-eminently distinguish us, will but add momentum to those agencies of vice, misrule, insubordination and terror which abound, unless we are fortified by those enduring and impregnable ramparts,—intelligence and virtue. Ohio is pledged to universal education. This is the letter of her charter of rights,—this was the spirit manifested in the creation of her present system of education. The cardinal feature of that system is, that all the youth between the ages of 4 and 21, are the children of the State, and that she is bound to educate them. Her decree is, that the right to knowledge is as natural and inalienable as the claim to freedom, and that the whole land must be watered with the streams of intelligence.

There are considerations which show that popular education, a distinguishing principle of our institutions, is also our highest policy. Intelligence is the life of successful enterprize. This opens up to the vision those valuable results of labor, which cannot be foreseen or calculated by the untaught mind. This quickens genius, and unfolds to the cultivated mind those discoveries and inventions, by whose magic and multiplying power, one hand becomes as a thousand. This controls the elements as with omnipotent voice, and renders them tributary to human power in the accomplishment of phenomena which constitute a new era in the history of the world. Our own New England, alike illustrates the truth and the policy of common school education. There, in an ungenial climate, in a land comparatively barren, and unmarked by those distinguishing advantages and resources which abound in other States, we find a people characterized by their wealth, industry and thrift—and a State, (Massachusetts,) in proportion to its population, annually producing fifty per cent. more property than any other in the Union. What but general intelligence, with its usual accompaniments, has produced this result. It is this which has 'covered her sterile hills with pasturage—crowded her harbors with fleets—taught every waterfall to labor for her benefit, and carried competence to every family throughout her borders.'"

INDIANA.

Common School Advocate, published at Indianapolis. H. F. West, Editor. Vol. I, 1846–7.

The School-master among the Hoosiers, by W. S. Lee, Buffalo, 1845.

An Address to the Legislature of Indiana, by One of the People, 1847.

Proceedings of the State Education Convention, held May 26, 1847, *with An Address in relation to Free Schools, by a Committee thereof.*

The Common School Advocate is ably conducted, and must have accomplished much good. We hope it is liberally sustained by the friends of schools in Indiana, and in the West generally.

The following extracts are taken from the "*Address of One of the People to the Legislature.*" If every constituent would address his representatives in a tone of remonstrance as manly and as decided as this "One," we should have the "Dead Sea" of our Legislative bodies stirred by healthy action.

"Some conception of the extent of the adult ignorance of our State may be formed from the fact, that of the 268,040 inhabitants over twenty years of age in Indiana, in 1840, 38,100 were unable to read and write. Here is indeed a humiliating fact, that one *seventh* part of the adult population of a great and flourishing State, is not able to read the charter of their liberties, or the votes they cast in the exercise of their elective franchise! Deplorable as may be such a state of things as a whole, yet there are facts in relation to some portions of the State still more appalling. There are gentlemen on this floor representing rich and populous counties, who perhaps never dreamed that a *sixth*, or a *fourth*, or a *third* of their constituents could not read the record of their legislative wisdom, nor peruse the eloquent speeches delivered in these halls and spread over the State at the expense of the commonwealth. Let us go into details in illustration of the above remark. I take the facts as I find them in the public documents of the Union. Perhaps the members from Putnam may be a little surprised to learn that more than a *sixth* part of their constituents, *e. g.* 6091 over twenty years of age, 1021 are unable to read, and that, too, almost within the sound of the bell of an University. Gentlemen from Montgomery will find the sovereigns they represent in a worse condition than their Putnam neighbors, *e. g.* 5519 over twenty years of age, 1088 are unable to read, almost one *fifth*. The representatives from Parke, may feel somewhat mortified to be told that more than one *fourth* of their constituents cannot read and write. Gentlemen from Rush and Gibson, from Washington and Tippecanoe. Fountain and Owen, Scott and Warrick, Hendricks and Huntington, Green and Daviess, Hamilton and Lawrence, will find, upon consulting the last census, that from a *fifth* to a *third* of their constituency are unable to read and write. Gentlemen from Jackson and Martin, Clay and Dubois, will doubtless feel themselves very much relieved from the burden of sending newspapers and legislative documents to those whom they represent, when informed that only a fraction more than one *half* of their constituency can read and write, *e. g.* Clay has 2006 inhabitants over twenty years of age, of these 738 are unable to read. Dubois has 1459 over twenty years of age,

of these 532 cannot read. Jackson has 3411 over twenty years of age, of these 1412 are unable to read. Martin has 1390 over twenty years of age, of these 620 cannot read nor write. These are startling facts, and should have their effect to rouse us to the inquiry, Shall this proportion be lessened, or increased, at the next census? How many recruits will the 162,522 between ten and twenty years of age in our State in 1840, furnish to swell the rank and file of the unfortunate 38,100, in 1850?

There were in 1840, 273,784 children in our State between five and twenty years of age. If our population at the present time be 800,000, shown by the same ratio of increase, the number of children between five and twenty years of age will now be 319,344. The report of the superintendent of common schools for 1844–5, states the number of scholars in school some part of the year to be 158,395. If the twenty-two counties not reporting furnished an equal proportion of scholars, there would be in these counties 56,047 scholars in school, which added to 158,395 gives an aggregate of 214,442. Supposing the number in school this year to be the same as in 1844, we shall find that 104,202, almost one *third*, between five and twenty years of age, are receiving no benefit from common schools. Look at this fact, legislators of Indiana! Impress it upon your memories, that of 319,344 children between five and twenty years of age, only 214,442 are receiving instruction; and many of these doubtless only half scholars, that is, a parent pledges himself to patronize the district school, a *scholar* and a *half*, and to avoid repudiation sends half a dozen children at various times during the quarter a sufficient number of days to be equal to the regular attendance of one pupil, for a quarter and a half. A condensing process, a royal highway to knowledge indeed! probably unknown to Solomon, or any other wise man. Shall we dig canals and build railroads to transport the products of our rich soil to market, and leave the intellect of the rising generation undeveloped and undisciplined? Is matter more valuable than mind? Do the facts already adduced evince an adequate provision for our intellectual wants, or indicate that the wisdom of our State is yet exhausted in perfecting our educational system? 'Let us know the whole truth, know the worst and provide for it,' is a resolution as applicable to the subject of popular education, as it was to the noble theme, in reference to which it was originally uttered by Patrick Henry.

Let us glance at the examples of Ohio and Michigan. The latter had the same grant from Congress for the establishment of an University that we had. She selected her seventy-two sections, or two townships, in various parts of the State, and will probably realize from the sales of them from 500,000 to 1,000,000 dollars. She levied a tax last year of half a mill on a dollar, and in 1847 it is to be increased to *one* mill on a dollar. She had in 1840, 96,189 inhabitants over twenty years of age; of these, *only one in forty-four was unable to read and write.* She has a superintendent of public instruction, who devotes his whole time and attention to the subject, visiting and lecturing in every county in the State, awakening new interest in the common schools, and co-operating with the friends of these schools to elevate and improve their character. The avails of the school lands amounted to $23,393 33, and the amount of taxes paid by the people upon the *ad valorem* principle, was $59,931 62.

What a contrast to the amount raised by Indiana upon the same prin-

ciple! Shall it be stated? Will not the very announcement of it overwhelm the community and call forth a general outburst of indignation upon the Legislature that had the hardihood to impose such enormous burdens for such an unimportant object? I will state it in *round* numbers, $0,000.

Ohio, though behind her younger sister of the lakes, in the completeness of her system and the fulness of her report, is yet far in advance of us in her legislation and the intelligence of her adult population. Besides the interest on the sales or rents of the school lands and the income of the deposit fund appropriated to school purposes, she requires the county commissioners to assess a tax upon the ad valorem principle of not less than one mill on a dollar, and not exceeding two mills. So, in accordance with that law, she raised last year not less than $144,000, and as the superintendent in his report of this year says, 'several of the counties have raised the full amount authorized by law,' so that we may presume that at least $200,000 were raised last year in Ohio in the way suggested, which, added to the $285,585 78, derived from various school funds, makes an aggregate of $485,585 78. In 1840, she had 638,690 inhabitants over twenty years of age; of these 35,394 were unable to read and write, that is, one in *eighteen*.

There must be some cause for the wide difference between Indiana and Ohio in the intelligence of her adult population. What reason more probable than the different policy adopted by them in reference to the support and encouragement of common schools? The latter, with an aggregate of taxable property of $144,000,000 annually to educate the rising generation, while the former, with a valuation of $118,500,000, has not the moral courage to lay any tax at all for the noblest of all purposes. Our lack of wisdom and forecast on this subject is faintly shadowed forth in the past, and one-*seventh* part of the sovereigns are neither able to read nor write.

We have *borrowed* millions for the physical improvement of our State, but we have not *raised* a dollar by ad valorem taxation to cultivate the minds of our children. No wonder that we have had log-rolling legislation and practical repudiation. No marvel that Indiana faith has been synonymous with *Punic* faith, and her credit for years a by-word in the commercial world. Whether the measures adopted at the last session relative to our State debt may be considered any thing else than the spasmodic action of the public mind produced by the universal expression of the commercial world of its utter abhorrence and detestation of repudiators, is a problem yet to be solved. How much in advance of former years of repudiation should we now be, if the contemplated arrangement with the foreign bondholders should not be consummated? Let it be remembered that the surest safeguards of the peace and prosperity of a community must be sought in its intelligence and virtue. The means of securing these and cultivating crystal honesty in the minds of the rising generation, should indeed be ample, free and universal as the air we breathe."

We intended to have noticed the *Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction in Michigan*, and the School Journal, edited by Mr. Baldwin, of Jackson, and other educational documents, but the space allotted to these notices is now exhausted.

JOURNAL

OF THE



Rhode Island

INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION.

Vol. II. PROVIDENCE, December, 15 & 25, 1847. No. 11 & 12.

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES FOR 1847.

We shall devote this number of the Journal to the proceedings of the several Institutes which have been held in Rhode Island in pursuance of the following:

CIRCULAR.

Arrangements have been made for holding three Teachers' Institutes, at the times and places hereinafter specified, and every teacher of a public school, and all others who propose to offer themselves as candidates for teaching a public school during the ensuing winter or next summer, are invited to attend and take part in the exercises of at least one of these Institutes.

The exercises of the Institute will embrace—

1. A review of the studies usually taught in the public schools of this State, with exemplifications of the best method of instruction in each branch, and with special attention to such difficulties as any member of the Institute may have encountered in teaching the same.

2. Familiar lectures and discussions among the members, on the organization of schools, the classification of pupils, and the theory and practice of teaching.

3. Public lectures and discussions in the evening, on topics calculated to interest parents and the community generally, in the subject of education, and the organization, administration, and improvement of public schools.

Although the attendance of several able and experienced instructors in particular branches has been provided, it is expected that members of the Institute will take a leading part in the course of instruction, and in the discussions.

That the exercises may be practical, and suited to the present wants of our schools, every teacher is requested to communicate a list of such topics as he would like to have considered at the session of the Institute which he proposes to attend.

Every member should be present on the first evening of the session—should be provided with a Bible or Testament; a slate and pencil; with pen and ink, or lead pencil, and a blank or common place book, in which to enter notes: and with the reading book used by the first class in the school of the town where he teaches, or proposes to teach.

The course of instruction, lectures, room and lights, will be free, and boarding places will be assigned, free of expense, to make early application to the Committee of Arrangements.

The Institutes will be held as follows:—

At Centreville, in Warwick, to Commence on Monday evening, November 15th, at 7 o'clock.

Christopher Allen, Esq., *Committee of Arrangements.*

At Bristol, to commence Monday evening, November 22d, at 7 o'clock.

Rev. THOMAS SHEPARD, Rev. JAMES M. SYKES, and Mr. D. M. GUSHEE, *Committee of Arrangements.*

At Pawtucket, to commence on Monday evening, November 29th, at 7 o'clock.

D. WILKINSON, J. D. WILLARD, and Rev. CHARLES HYDE, *Committee of Arrangements.*

Each Institute will continue in session through the week on which it commences.

School Committees, and Trustees of school districts are respectfully solicited to render every facility in their power, to teachers who may be desirous of attending; and all persons interested in the improvement of public schools, or the advancement of education, are invited to be present at the evening sessions of the Institutes.

HENRY BARNARD,
Commissioner of Public Schools.

PROVIDENCE, November, 1, 1847.

The accounts of the proceedings which follow are copied from the sources indicated, with a few additions or alterations made from the record of the several Institutes kept by their respective Secretaries, and deposited by them with the Commissioner of Public Schools.

[*From the Providence Transcript.*]

TEACHERS' INSTITUTE AT CENTREVILLE.

The Institute met in the Methodist church and was called to order precisely at 7 o'clock—the hour named in the circular appointing the Institute—on Monday evening, Nov. 15th, by Mr. Barnard, Commissioner of Public Schools. The Rev. Mr. Willard, of Crompton, invoked the Divine blessing, and after music by the choir of the church, Mr. Barnard occupied an hour in setting forth the nature, objects and anticipated results of the Institute which he had appointed at this place for the teachers of Public Schools. The Teachers' Institute as now organized and conducted, was a new and valuable agency in the work of school improvement. It went directly to the fountain head, and aimed to make better and purer, all influences which flowed out from the teacher. It differed from conventions and associations, as these had generally been conducted, in as much as it added to written lectures and oral discussions, (which occupied from one to two days, and were ordinarily of a theoretical character in such conventions,) a systematic course of instruction in the best methods of teaching, and in reference to difficulties encountered or apprehended in the school-room, and extending through a session of one or two weeks. Conventions and associations, such as that of the American Institute of Instruction, and the Essex County Teachers' Association, had done much good to the community, and to teachers, and especially to those who had taken an active part in their proceedings. But in a Teachers' Institute, properly conducted, every member takes part—and he does this under the direction or example of accomplished and successful teachers. It acts directly too on the teachers now in the schools, and by making the schools better, helps to create in the minds of the parents, who thus see wrought out in their own school, and on their own children, the advantages of improved methods of instruction and discipline, a higher standard of excellence. This is the most powerful argument for school improvement which can be addressed to a community—the contrast between a poor school and a good one, exhibited in their own district, and on their own children, and brought about by

teachers made better by being trained or educated to these methods. The Institute thus illustrates imperfectly the benefits of a Normal School, or a course of systematic and practical training for a proper length of time, under accomplished teachers, and with a workshop as it were attached, where an apprenticeship in the art of teaching can be served. This peculiar excellence of the Normal School is foreshadowed in the Institute, which thus prepares the public mind for it. The Teachers' Institute was first tried in Connecticut in 1839; was introduced into New York in 1842; into Ohio in 1844; into Massachusetts and Rhode Island in 1845; into Vermont, New Hampshire, Michigan and Illinois in 1846; and into Maine and New Jersey in 1847. During the present season, probably 15,000 teachers will have attended for one or two weeks these Institutes in the States above named, and more than half a million of scholars will be better taught and governed in consequence. Most of the schools thus taught, will demand a teacher of equally good qualifications next year, and most of the same teachers will attend in the course of another year another Institute, and thus add to their own attainments, and thus carry the standard of qualifications upwards and onwards. This is making teachers their own standard-bearers, and the most powerful agencies in educational improvement.

Mr. Barnard pointed out briefly the course of instruction which would be pursued, under teachers of large experience and eminent success, and promised the community a feast of fat things in the evening lectures and discussions. He also dwelt on the good results which would follow from these sessions in making teachers acquainted with each other, and with each other's experience; in bringing their impracticable notions to the test of actual practice; in measuring themselves by others who had thought as much and practiced more; in entering into the results of many trials, of much study, and large experience on the part of good teachers, &c. &c. He dwelt on the importance of punctuality, of becoming individually acquainted with each other, of taking hold with the right spirit, the spirit of learners and of brothers—of conforming as far as may be, to the regulations of the families whose hospitalities they were receiving, &c. It is imposible to condense into a few paragraphs an address which was extempore, and which was as condensed as it could be in the delivery.

Mr. Barnard was followed by Mr. Wells, who spoke of an Institute which he had lately attended in New Hampshire, and then passed to the importance of thoroughness in instruction, and on the necessity of inspiring scholars with a spirit of self reliance; a determination to try: a determination not to give up to any difficulty however hard. He illustrated these points very happily by cases which had occurred in his own observation and in his own school.

At the close of the public exercises, at the suggestion of the Commissioner, arrangements were made for the appointment of Secretaries and Committees on the part of the members, and for the time of meeting in the morning.

The following summary will convey an idea of what was done during the week.

The following officers and committees were appointed by the members:

S. M. Weeks and S. H. Winsor, Secretaries. Sylvester Patterson, William Sherman, Walter S. Legate, Committee of Arrangements on the part of the Institute.

There was also a Committee of Critics on Pronunciation, and a Monitor of attendance.

The Board of Instruction consisted of Mr. Wells, late principal of the English department in Phillips' Academy, Andover; Mr. Russell, of Boston, teacher of elocution; and Mr. Cornell, superintendent of the Friends' School, Providence. Mr. Perry, principal of the Summer-street Grammar School, Providence; Mr. Mowry, of Old Warwick; Mr. Baker, of Crompton, Mr. Patterson, of Scituate, took part in the regular exercises.

The general management of the Institute, as to the order of exercises, &c., was conducted by the Commissioner of Public Schools, and in his absence, by Mr. Wells.

The daily session of the Institute commenced at a quarter before 9 o'clock in the morning, and closed at 12, and at half past 1 o'clock in the afternoon, and closed at 5, with a recess of five or ten minutes at the close of every hour. During the recess, the windows and doors were opened for a change of air, and music and conversation attuned body and mind for the next exercise.

During the week, the following exercises were conducted, by the gentlemen named, with the teachers as scholars, having in each exercise special reference to the best method of presenting the same and similar exercises in Public Schools, as ordinarily organized, viz: one exercise in reading the Scriptures, as a devotional exercise, by Mr. Russell; two in spelling, by Mr. Wells; five in arithmetic, by Messrs. Wells, Mowry and Baker; ten in Reading, including exercises in the elementary sounds, pronunciation and the general principles of elocution, by Mr. Russell; four in grammar, by Mr. Wells; three in composition, including punctuation, letter writing, &c., by Mr. Wells; one in analysis of language in connection with Green's Grammatical Chart, by Mr. Perry; one in geography, including map drawing, by Messrs. Patterson and Mowry; one in the use of globes, by Mr. Cornell; and one on oral instruction, by Mr. Wells. In the course of these exercises, many members of the Institute made valuable suggestions as to their own methods, and asked questions which brought out important explanations.

A portion of each evening was occupied by lectures and addresses, calculated to interest the community generally. These were delivered as follows: on Monday, by the Commissioner of Public Schools, and Mr. Wells; on Tuesday, by Mr. Russell; on Wednesday, by Mr. Wells; on Thursday, by Mr. Russell; on Friday, by Mr. Russell, Mr. Kingsbury, and Mr. Barnard.

The following are among the topics on which remarks were made during the several evenings by the speakers named, viz:

The length and frequency of recess in the daily sessions of a school, by Messrs. Winsor, Weeks, Patterson, Tillinghast, Sherman and Legate.

Whispering, or communication in School, by Messrs. Baker, Legate, Sherman, Winsor, Russell, Wells, Doe, Chapman and Paine.

Neatness in and about the school-room, by Messrs. Weeks, Perry, Sherman, Baker, Kingsbury and Barnard.

Punctuality and regularity of attendance, by Messrs. Kingsbury, Perry, Mowry and Sherman.

Management of bad boys in school, by Messrs. Weeks and Winsor.

Remarks were also made on *oral instruction; cheerfulness in the school*

room; self-possession and self-reliance in scholars; school discipline; the responsibilities of Teachers; the care of health; Normal schools; town and district libraries; professional reading by Teachers, &c. &c.

The place of meeting was crowded every evening by the citizens of of the place and neighborhood, who remained together on almost every occasion for three or four hours, and at the close of the exercises on Friday night, the following resolution was unanimously adopted.

Resolved, That this community have felt a deep interest in the exercises of the Teachers' Institute held among us during the present week, and we regard it as a *special favor*, that the teachers resorted to this place, as the one in which the able lectures on subjects pertaining to education, should be presented, and the thorough training in some of the prominent branches should be exhibited.

The Institute adjourned on Saturday, after a most interesting and profitable session. The following resolutions were adopted by the teachers on Friday evening:

Resolved, That the thanks of the members of the Teachers' Institute, now about to close its session at Centreville, are most cordially returned:

1st.—To the Commissioner of Public Schools for his gratuitious labors in making all preliminary arrangements for holding this and other Institutes for the benefit of the teachers of this State—for enlisting the services of willing and efficient local committees—for securing the attendance of such able and experienced instructors, and arranging so profitable a course of exercises, as well as for his own lectures and participation in the discussions of the session.

2d.—To Christopher Allen, Esq., Chairman of the Committee of Arrangements, and his associates on that committee, from this and the neighboring villages, for the liberal and free accommodations provided for the board of the members, and for the sessions of the Institute.

3d.—To the many families of this neighborhood for the hearty manner in which the teachers have been welcomed to the hospitalities of their homes, and to the interest which they and the community generally have manifested in the exercises and objects of the Institute.

4th.—To the Trustees of the school district, and to the proprietors of the Methodist church for the use of their respective houses for the meetings of the Institute, and to the choir of the church for the interest which their performances have added to the evening sessions.

5th.—to Messrs. Wells, Russell and Cornell for their practical, interesting and valuable course of instruction—for both the manner and matter of their several exercises.

6th.—To the Rev. Mr. Willard for his services in conducting the devotional exercises of the Institute, and for his constant attendance and participation in our proceedings.

Resolved, That as teachers, we feel grateful for the appointment of Teachers' Institutes, and for every means provided for our individual and professional improvement, and we shall rejoice to co-operate in any way in our power for the establishment in this State of a Normal school, or an institution for the practical training of such persons as have the requisite tact, talent and character for the labors and responsibilities of the profession of teacher.

Resolved, That we greatly desire the permanent establishment of a

periodical devoted to the cause of education in this State, in which the various, (the better and the best,) methods of teaching may be presented and discussed by teachers and the friends of education.

Resolved, That we hail the establishment of town, village and school district libraries, as among the most efficient means for carrying out the work of the school-room, into the family, the field and the work-shop, and of increasing the general intelligence and virtue of the community.

S. M. WEEKS, } *Secretaries.*
S. H. WINSOR, }

Mr. Barnard at the close of the Institute on Friday evening, cautioned the teachers—and especially the young and inexperienced teachers, against a hasty adoption of any method which they had seen or heard presented here, until they had made it their own by due consideration, observation, and practice. Every good teacher must have his own methods, and must make them the basis or stock upon which to build or engraft the views and methods of others. Even when they have made themselves masters of new and improved methods of instruction, they should not alarm the prejudices of the community by the promise of any thing very new or great. They must carry good common sense—a quality too often wanting in young teachers, and only to be acquired by looking at things as they are, and studying to make the most of surrounding circumstances—into all their operations. They must be punctual if they expect their scholars to be punctual. They must be moral and religious men if they would make their instructions the fountain of moral and religious influence to their schools. They must look after the physical comfort of their scholars—to the ventilation of the school room, to the fires, to the manner in which children are seated, to frequent change of position, and to an alternation of study and exercise, to the light, and all the circumstances which determine the physical comfort of children in school, if they expect them to study and to love the school. They must look to their own manners, to their own dress and the care of their persons, even to the scraping of their shoes and boots at the door, and to the depositing of their own hats and overcoats in their appropriate places, to their own postures and movements in the school room, to the manner in which they address the scholars both in and out of school, and especially to their own intercourse with parents and others in the family circle, if they would be instructors in good manners, a department of education too much overlooked in our common schools. Teachers must look to their own health. Many of them will pass from active occupation in the field or the shop to the close atmosphere and confined labors of the school room, and headache and dyspepsia will follow and with these will come irritability of temper, frequent application of the rod, &c. Much of the punishment of our schools comes from a bad digestion in the teacher. They must cultivate the acquaintance of parents—invite them to their schools and even lead them in, if they will not go in voluntarily. They must continue the work of their own improvement. They must study and familiarize themselves with the manifold uses of the blackboard, of globes and other forms of apparatus. They must read good books on the theory and practice of teaching—such as the School and Schoolmaster, Page's Theory and Practice, Fowles' Institutes, &c. &c.

They should take at least one Educational Journal. They should visit each other's schools. Let every other Friday afternoon or Saturday morning be devoted to this purpose—and the alternate Saturday be devoted to Teachers' Meetings. Mr. Barnard cautioned the teachers against considering this Institute or any Institute as a substitute for thorough study and practical training, or as an easy and short process for transferring the results of long and successful experience of one teacher into the head and the hands of a young and a heedless one. The Institute has its place in a system of measures for improving the qualifications of teachers, exciting the spirit of study and of their profession, by rubbing down the rough points of manner and character in the collision of mind with mind, by exemplifying good methods, and by that personal example of such instructors as have favored this Institute by their presence and services. No teacher can have witnessed the courteous manners, and the thorough instruction, even for a day, of such gentlemen, without having a better standard of a teacher in his mind. In conclusion, he bid them be of good cheer—stand by the cause, and the cause would uphold them—let each make himself a better man, and he will become a better teacher.

CATALOGUE

Of members of the Institute at Centreville.

NAMES.	LOCATION.
Stephen M. Weeks,	Centreville,
Samuel A. Winsor,	N. Scituate.
Sylvester Patterson,	S. Scituate.
Walter S. Legate,	Greenville, Centerville P. O.
Willinm Sherman,	Washington.
William S. Baker,	Centreville, N. Providence.
Jencks Mowry,	Warwick.
Rev. Geo. A. Willard,	Centreville.
Rev. Geo .W. Wooding,	do
Dr. Horatio N. Matteson,	do.
Dr. Henry Hubbard,	do.
Benjamin H. Horton,	Washington.
Henry C. Reynolds,	N. Scituate.
Jno. K. Burlingame,	Rice City, Coventry.
Benoni J. Tillinghast,	Scituate.
Gershom P. Sherman,	Kingston.
Geo. S. Tillinghast,	Rice City, Coventry.
Jos. Tillinghast,	S. Foster.
Pardon Tillinghast,	Mount Vernon.
Henry S. Vaughn,	Coventry.
William Read,	Fiskville, S. Scituate.
Charles Vaughn,	Rice City, Coventry.
Peleg Almy,	Tiverton, Four Corners.
Edwin A. Hill,	N. Scituate.
Benjamin H. Meader,	Johnston, N. Scituate P. O.,
Joshua Davis,	S. Scituate.
Charles E. Nichols,	Coventry.
Albin Yeans,	N. Scituate.
Nathan L. Richmond,	Brand's I. Works.
Warren C. Barber,	N. Scituate,
Emery A Hopkins,	S. Foster.
James H. Larkin,	Hopkinton,
Milton Paine,	Wickford.

NAMES.	LOCATION.
Thomas B. Carr,	Slatersville.
Elisha P. Phillips,	(Pine Hill P. O.,) Exeter.
Nelson K Church,	Richmond.
Jno. A. Mathewson,	Johnston.
Alvin S Chapman,	Perrysville, S. Kingston.
Russell W. Reynolds,	E. Greenwich.
Layton Seamans,	Mount Vernon, P. O., S. Foster.
Peter D. Healy,	
Walter Scott,	
Albert K. Barnes,	S. Scituate.
Alexander Peck,	Rice City, Coventry.
Jos. Gallup,	Pine Hill, Richmond.
James C. Sisson,	Pine Hill, Exeter.
Merrit T. Arnold,	Coventry.
Ira Stillman,	Centreville.
Wm. T. Anderson,	(Lippit P. O.,) Phenix.
Charles Wilbor,	(Locustville P. O ,) S. Scituate.
Nathan K. Lewis,	Brand's Iron Works.
Richard Green,	Pawtuxet.
Austin S. Cushman.	
William Gamwell.	

LADIES.

NAMES.	LOCATION.
Lydia A. Greene,	Centreville.
Jane Fifield,	do.
Farma Burge,	
Caroline S. Burdett,	Greenville, Centreville.
Cynthia A. Brown,	Smithfield.
Lois Reynolds,	Coventry.
Mary A. Hayden,	do.
Marietta Walker,	Scituate.
Nancy A. Derwin,	Cranston.
Lucy Glover,	N. Kingston.
Tabitha G. Budlong,	Apponaug P. O., Warwick.
Isabella L. Budlong,	do. do.
Mary Wickes,	do. do.
Mary R. Thompson,	do. do.
Catharine Stillman,	Centreville.
Aurelia J. Angell,	Scituate.
Maria L. Angell,	do.
Rhoby Brown,	Warwick.
Miss E. Remington,	Fiskville.
Elizabeth Codner,	Crompton.
Susan A. Clapp.	do.
Roena Wood,	do.
Elizabeth Greene,	do.
Abby Brown,	do.
Ann C. Taylor,	do.
Sarah J. Scott,	do.
Anna Holden,	do.
Abby Remington.	do.

[*From the Providence Daily Journal.*]

TEACHERS' INSTITUTE IN PAWTUCKET.

In compliance with an invitation of Hon. Henry Barnard, Commissioner of Public Schools, a Teachers' Institute was held in Pawtucket, R. I, commencing on Monday evening, Nov. 29, and closing on the succeeding Saturday. The meeting was opened with prayer by Rev. C. Hyde, of Central Falls, and its objects, together with some of the topics deemed worthy of consideration and discussion, briefly noticed by Mr. Barnard.

Mr. Lowell Mason, of Boston, was then introduced, who occupied one hour in an able and lucid discussion of the claims of music in common school education. The following points were urged in its favor:

1st. Its physical advantages. It improves the health by strengthening the lungs and chest. It cultivates the faculty of hearing by the exercise of its appropriate organ. It enlarges the vocal powers, and assists to give the voice a smooth, distinct, and rapid articulation.

2d. The mind is improved by it, in having its various faculties brought into exercise, while contemplating its scientific relations.

3d. The moral feelings have been reached by music, even when other means failed.

4th. The musical art is a source of pleasure, and contributes much towards the happiness of our race.

5th It is adapted to the capacities of children.

6th. All are capable of mastering it as a science and an art, yet few do so after they have arrived at the age of eighteen. Therefore, the foundation of a good musical taste must be laid, if at all, during those years usually devoted to attending school.

The lecturer properly and with good taste dwelt upon the moral influence of music, and the different effect of the various kinds of melody. The various species of song so continually heard in the streets of cities and villages, he believed to be pernicious in their tendencies, especially so when connected with their popular words.

During his short visit Mr Mason gave four lectures, in which he exemlipfied a scientific method of teaching this entertaining subject. A proper position while singing should be deemed of the highest importance, as affecting both health and quality of tone. When the head is erect and the shoulders thrown backward, the lungs and vocal organs are more free to perform their offices, consequently can be exercised more easily and to a greater extent than when the throat and chest are contracted by bad positions. He would teach first the thing or essence, then its name. The teacher should not, in teaching this branch, sing with his pupils, but listen to them, and let them listen to him. He approved counting or beating time, also "singing by rote," and recommended short lessons for children.

At the close of the exercises on Monday evening, the Institute was organized by the appointment of Secretaries, and a Committee of Conference, consisting of Messrs Meader, Clemons, Wells, and Misses Fry, Holt, and Beal. Miss Mann, and Mr. J. H. Willard were subsequently constituted a Committee of Criticism, and Mr. Colgrove Committee of Music.

Mr. William Russell of Boston, delivered addresses on Tuesday and Friday evenings, upon the subject of Reading, or Elocution. These were portions of a course of instruction, given by him during several day sessions of the Institute, and the recitation which he introduced to illustrate the several divisions of the subject, served to make his lectures interesting, even to those who were not able to perceive fully the distinctions of sound, or ideas expressed.

In teaching he would direct his first efforts against all bad positions of the body, and their concomitants, nasal, harsh, subdued, guttural, or other unpleasant tones of voice. Let the pupils stand erect, place the hands on the hips, with the fingers pointing forward, throw the elbows back, inflate while in this position the lungs slowly and fully as the teacher counts one, two, and when he pronounces the word three, begin to expel the air gradually through the nostrils. This exercise, several times repeated, causes an unusual and more complete oxygenation of the blood that will send a thrill of warmth through the system, extending sometimes even to the ends of the fingers. Various exercise in whispering, speaking, &c., should be given in connection with the above breathing, such as will eradicate the bad tones, or other defects, and promote at the same time, clear, distinct, well articulated, and appropriate vocal expressions. Numerous models may be given for imitation and repetition, which shall serve to train the class in the great variety of tones, articulation, inflection, &c.

1st. Such as relate to power of voice, as whispering, half do., soft, medium, loud, or shouting tones.

2d. Pitch, as being high or low.

3d. Different rate of movements, as slow or quick.

4th. Inflections, as rising, falling, and circumflex.

5th. Quality of tone, as being smooth, rough, harsh, nasal, guttural, orotund, &c.

Lastly, the various combinations of the above, as heard in expressions indicating joy, sorrow, grief, pity, distress, laughter, merriment, &c. The same physical advantages arise in this that were claimed in the musical department.

It will not be understood that any considerable part of the above can be given in one exercise, or that this should continue so long as to tire the organs. Labor and rest should alternate in accordance with the law of physiology.

Mr. R. also spent considerable time in giving the powers, or sounds of the letters in the alphabet, also examples of spelling by the sound instead of the names of letters, called analysis of words. From these examples he proceeded to lessons in reading, from the American School Reader, a popular book, of which he is an associate author.

To those acquainted with the subject, and the happy, easy, and gifted address of Mr. Russell, sufficient has been said to indicate the character of these exercises and the good produced. Reading is an important but much neglected branch of common school education, and anything tending to bring us to a knowledge and sense of our duty in teaching it, cannot but be hailed with joy.

Dr. Cutter delivered two short lectures on Tuesday and Wednesday. The first, on the means of promoting and preserving health; the second,

on the anatomy and physiology of the vocal organs, together with remarks on the ventilation of school rooms. The anatomical parts were illustrated by a manikin. If the teacher would have studies pursued with vigor, he must supply his room with pure air, action must alternate with rest, the positions must be changed often, and instruction should be given relative to the most important laws of life.

Mr. Joshua Bates, Jr., principal of the Brimmer School, Boston, lectured Wednesday evening, on *Requisites for success in teaching*. The first named was a knowledge of the human mind. The teacher should know how to read all his pupils, and apply to each the different treatment which his state required. Some need to be taught how to study, others to communicate their ideas. If ignorant of human nature, and mental philosophy, a teacher will fail. 2d. He should possess a love of imparting knowledge. This knowledge must not be confined to the text book, but be general, and communicated in an interesting, happy style. His success will depend upon the manner of conducting the recitations. 3d. A faculty of governing. Government he considered both an end and means. Pupils are governed either by force from without or a principle within. The latter government should be sought for, and cherished as the only true and effective stimulant to good actions. There might be, he thought, occasions where a rod would be necessary to effect what the want of inward principle cannot be made to supply. Without good government there can be no right instruction. The teacher must be one who can make the pupils love and respect him. 4th. Power of self-control. "He who would rule others, must first learn to govern himself." 5th. Power of inspiring his pupils with enthusiasm. 6th. The ability to form a symmetrical and correct character. Right principles must be inculcated, good social habits formed, and nothing overlooked that will make a pupil the ornament of his family, school, or society. A more appropriate subject could not have been selected.

On Thursday evening, Mr. W. H. Wells, late principal of the English Department of Phillips' Academy, Andover, Mass., delivered a lecture on Astronomy, as an illustration of oral teaching in school. The lecture consisted principally of the history of this most ancient of sciences, but was interspersed with anecdotes, and sketches of the lives of Copernicus, Tycho Brahe, and other eminent astronomers, which made it interesting and instructive. In the true spirit of a teacher, he brought his telescope, that he might demonstrate the facts of his lecture. This instrument magnified 250 times, and through the kindness of Mr. W., the members were at different times favored with a view of the crescent form of Venus, the spots on the sun, the belted appearance of Jupiter, his moons, and the singular appearance of our own secondary sphere. It is presumed that each of the above views will be described to young geographers and astronomers in many different schools, and contribute to the interest and permanence of their ideas of these distant globes.

As Mr. Barnard was compelled to be absent much of the time, he appointed Mr. Wells to take charge of the Institute Having spoken of his lecture, then, we will now return to his other no less valuable labors. What time was not given to the other members of the Board of Education, was spent by Mr. Wells in giving instruction and discussing various subjects connected with the teachers' vocation. In spelling, he

recommended the practice of writing the difficult words in the reading and spelling lessons. In this exercise both the eye and ear assist us, while in oral spelling one only is concerned. Persons then who find it troublesome to recollect the orthography of such words as *relieve*, *perceive*, or others, will do well to write them correctly, and spend a moment in examining them carefully with the eye.

In the subject of arithmetic he presented his method of teaching the simple rules. In this connection it may be proper to give the Scotch method of teaching addition, as mentioned by Mr. Russell. The pupils have a simple sum set, and are allowed three minutes to obtain a correct result. Each day the sums are more difficult, but the time for obtaining the answers always remains the same. Thus they gradually acquire an almost incredible facility in performing their problems. The importance of thorough instruction cannot be too highly appreciated by those who assume to train up youthful minds, that they may look upon the beauties and cares of life with strong and vigorous intellectual powers. In pursuing this absorbing study, the teacher did not forget the old maxim that whatever is worth doing is worth doing well. Indeed, so little of what children learn in school is carried into actual practice, that unless they derive the benefit of thorough instruction, they spend most of their time in vain.

The subject of grammar was discussed by Mr. Wells with such shrewd generosity, that his own excellent work was not even mentioned. To the hundred other authors he frequently appealed in support of his statements, and with an air of so much freedom that one would almost doubt whether he were really the author of the work bearing his name. It is not intended to give him undue praise, or to imply a censure on other members of the Board. They do not deserve it. The teaching of grammar heretofore seemed to him to have been too mechanical. Too much time had been spent in learning the names, when the things represented were not understood. Although grammar is the art of writing and speaking the language correctly, something has been taught which did not and was not fitted to accomplish that object. Many a youth who flattered himself that he possessed a desirable knowledge of this art, has learned that he wasted much time and labor on the surface, while the heart of the subject was wholly untouched.

Upon the manifold advantages of oral instruction he spoke at length, and exhibited a chart which he had formed in connection with a class in history. On this, space toward the right indicated the flowing on of time, being divided into centuries, into each of which was put the names of distinguished men and events. Such, when finished, would be far more desirable ornaments for the school room than the rude drawings too often found on its walls.

Instructions were given by Mr. Wells in writing, folding and superscribing letters, and on many other points not here noticed.

The reports of the Committee of Criticism drew forth some grammatical discussions, which were useful and pleasant. In these the grammatical taste and knowledge of Mr. Wells were particularly useful.

Mr. Cornell, Superintendent of the Friends' School, Providence, occupied half an hour in explaining the uses of his improved and truly valuable little globe.

Mr. Benson, of Pawtucket, explained his method of teaching propor tion and interest, with illustrations on the black-board.

Mr. Colgrove, of Kingston, devoted a short time to the subjects of phonography and music. In the latter subject, he called the attention of the members to an improved notation.

Mr. Clemons, of Woonsocket, exemplified his manner of teaching mental arithmetic. Other members at different times spoke of their several methods of teaching the several subjects under consideration.

There remains but one other class of exercises to be noticed,—the discussions. These were held before and after the evening lectures, and in which the following gentlemen participated: Rev. Messrs. Hyde, Round, Bodgett and Brown, Dr. Cleaveland, Messrs. Russell, W. H. Wells, Willard, D. Wilkinson, Sisson, Colegrove, Maggett, Clemons, Bates, Aldrich, Bliss, J. Wilkinson, Wells of North Providence, Collins and Benson. The subjects and many of the views advanced may be gathered from the following remarks.

Recesses should be frequent and short rather than long and less frequent, more especially in primary schools. In some schools changes in position are attained in recitations. Five minutes in each of three hours were deemed better than fifteen at one time. Upon the question of emulation there was a variety of views. Some would totally disregard it, some would employ only the better kind of it, and others appeal to it as a proper motive on all occasions, but one that should not be over worked. Some difference of opinion existed both in regard to the necessity and possibility of preventing whispering. The necessity depended on the size of the school, and the possibility upon the motive presented, or the moral condition of the pupils. If scholars desire to communicate with each other, opportunities will present themselves in spite of the watchfulness of teachers. As among the best incentives to study were named emulation, constant employment, better feelings, habits of order and neatness, love and fear, sense of right, coöperation of parents and teachers, and good rooms and apparatus. On the best method of securing thorough discipline, a variety of views were presented. Bad methods were mentioned, as the frequent change of teachers, expressions of discontented parents before pupils, bad houses and seats, multiplicity of text books, &c.

Most of the speakers were in favor of public examinations at the close of terms, some preferred them weekly, and two believed that more good would result from visits distributed at random over the time of school. Good examples of teachers were considered excellent means of securing neatness in pupils. On Friday evening the exercises closed in a very animated and satisfactory discussion of the question, Does the Bible and moral instruction form a part of a teacher's daily duty?

The following views were advanced. The Bible should be used by the teacher only, and not as a text-book. It should be used to perpetuate the principles of government. The pupils should learn morals of their teachers as from the conversation of others. The reading lesson in the Bible should form the groundwork of moral teachings. To this some objected as tending to the inculcation of sectarian views. Knowledge is power, not only to do evil but to do good; therefore, they who give the power should take care so to train the moral sentiments as to

ensure the right use of it. With the preceding view the teacher's office was regarded as second almost to none. Pupils ought not to be sent to any school from which the Bible is excluded. Teachers should scatter the seeds of morality. Reading the Bible as an opening exercise, and teaching morals should not be confounded. This should not be put on a level with other books. The Bible is a holy and reverend book, which should be read carefully by all qualified to judge of truth.

This interchange or expression of views was perhaps the most interesting of the kind during the Institute. The acknowledged importance of moral instruction, and evident reverence for the scriptures, were more, far more than sufficient to counterbalance any unpleasant sensation arising from a difference of opinion as to the use of the Bible, or method of exerting a healthful moral influence over the youth of our age.

The meetings of the Institute were held in a very neat and commodious house recently erected by school district No. 1, as a model for the State. The scholars of the grammar department were present during the exercises, and with visitors assisted to form during the day time, an audience of about one hundred and seventy-five. In the evening the room was filled to its utmost capacity, not less than three hundred and fifty being present to listen to the efforts for the improvement of our invaluable little institutions, so aptly termed "New England colleges." Intelligent parents were pleased with these meetings for the improvement of common schools, and teachers who love their calling rejoice that the community is beginning to feel a deeper interest in what so vitally concerns the welfare and permanence of this enlightened republic.

Speaking of the Institute as a school, it had the characteristics of a good one. While the pupils loved and respected each other and their teachers, the teachers in return seemed to reciprocate the good feeling, and earnestly endeavor to make the school happy and profitable. Parents and friends also coöperated, and every thing went on harmoniously.

At the close of the morning session for Saturday, after the passage of the resolutions, the Institute adjourned. The undersigned respectfully beg leave to close the account by asking a liberal indulgence for the hasty manner in which it has been prepared.

C. BENSON, Jr., } *Secretaries.*
J. K. ALDRICH, }

RESOLUTIONS.

Realizing that the Institute now about to close, has been one of unusual pleasure and profit to the members present, we would gratefully acknowledge our obligations to those who have in various ways contributed to render it profitable and happy, in the following resolution.

Resolved, That our thanks are due as follows:

To Hon. Henry Barnard, for his unmeasured liberality in assuming the expenses of the Institute.

To Messrs. Mason, Russell, Wells, Cutter, Bates, and others who have addressed us, both for their valuable instruction, and the kind, happy manner in which it has been imparted.

To School District No. 1, through the trustees, for the gratuitous use of its neat and spacious room.

To Messrs. Willard, Hyde, and Wilkinson, Committee of Arrangements, for the valuable assistance which they have obligingly rendered. And to the several citizens of this village, through whose generous hospitality we have been so agreeably and comfortably entertained.

The following catalogue embraces eighty-two names of members of the Institute who were in attendance. Persons desirous of employing teachers will do well to remember such as possess sufficient interest and zeal in their calling to attend these meetings for improvement. To form a symmetrical and correct character is not the work of a moment, or of ignorance; and parents who love their children should think of this when about to entrust their children to the care of teachers. "As is the teacher, so is the school."

FEMALES

Names.	*P. O. Address.*
Lavina Bartlett,	Smithfield.
Joanna A. Steere,	"
E. M. Ingraham,	Providence.
E. L. Ingraham,	"
J. L Roys,	Woonsocket.
Sylvia A. Baxton,	"
M. A. Fry,	"
Ann E. Chamberlain,	South Scituate.
Ruth A Weatherhead,	Cumberland.
L. A. Scott,	"
Miranda Phettiplace,	Chepachet.
Sarah S. Burgess,	Cumberland.
Nancy W. Tabor,	Slatersville.
Sarah H. Rice,	South Scituate.
Desire D. Cole,	Providence
Lucy C. Stone,	Cranston.
Urana Keech,	Lonsdale.
Maria R. Mann,	Pawtucket.
Charity Wharton,	"
Susan Horswell,	"
Mary Beal,	"
Caroline Bagley,	"
Mary C. Barrows,	"
Henrietta Carpenter,	"
Cynthia B Ingraham,	"
Mary Bliss,	"
Mary A. Jenks,	"
Lydia W. Kenyon,	"
Nancy R. Sayles,	Burrillville.
Lucina M. Sayles,	"
H. A. Fisher,	Dedham, Mass.
Caroline E. Weston,	Woonsocket.
Caroline R. Brown,	Scituate.
Amey Horton,	Glocester.
Irena J. Sayles,	Scituate.
Edith L. Holt,	Central Falls.
Julia A. Pond,	Dedham. Mass.
Sarah Mahoney,	Johnston.
Aurelia J. Angell,	North Providence.
Catharine Stone,	"
——— Whitney,	Slatersville.
Catharine Ellis,	"
Anna Inman,	Providence.
Emily Moerson,	Johnston.

MALES

Names	*P. O. Address.*
Charles E. Nicholas,	Scituate.
Burrell Matteson,	"
Benjamin H. Meader,	"
Charles W. Earle,	Cranston.
Wan on Briggs, Jr,	Warwick.
Issac B. Arnold,	"
Thomas B. Carr,	Slatersville.
Alexander M Gett,	"
H. N Clemons,	Woonsocket.
Pardon A. Phillips,	Johnston.
William Colegrove,	Kingston.
Jared Griffith,	North Providence.
S. P. Wells,	"
B. Paine,	Johnston.
William P. Collins,	"
Jeremiah K. Aldrich,	Cranston.
Hiram N. Randall,	Foster.
John H. Willard,	Pawtucket.
Israel Wilkinson,	"
Cyrus Benson, Jr.,	"
George Brown,	"
Henry M. Bivers,	"
Alpha Southwick,	Woonsocket.
Albert H. Campbell,	Lonsdale.
S. N. Ross,	Central Falls.
Daniel M. Smith,	"
Augustus Olney,	North Providence.
A. A Meader,	Chepachet.
E. L. Manwaring,	Cumberland Hill.
Gustavus D Bates,	Providence.
I. Haggett,	Valley Falls.
Melville Clemons,	Woonsocket.
Isaac Pike,	Johnston.
Sylvester Patterson,	South Scituate.
George Work,	Warren.
Joseph Seagraves,	Providence.
A Angell,	"
W. Winsor,	South Scituate.

TEACHERS' INSTITUTE AT BRISTOL.

A detailed account of this Institute would be in the main a repetition of the proceedings already given of those at Centreville and Pawtucket. The session commenced on the 22d, and continued through the week. The exercises were conducted by Mr. Russell, and Mr. W. B. Fowle, with occasional practical exrcises by Mr. Gushee, of Bristol, Mr. Amos Perry, of Providence, Mr. G. B. Cooke, of Hartford, Conn., and the evening lectures by Mr. J. Bates, Jr., of Boston, Mr. Russell, Mr. Barnard, Mr. Kingsbury, Rev. Mr. Dumont, of Newport, and others. Various topics connected with school discipline, order of exercises, and methods of instruction were discussed, in which several members of the Institute took part. The citizens of Bristol kindly entertained the teachers and provided for the local expenses of the Institute. A vote of thanks for their hospitality and liberality, called forth a feeling address from Rev. Thomas Shepard, the veteran friend and laborer for schools, in Bristol, which is thus reported in the Phœnix.

"In responding to the last vote of thanks, Mr. Shepard remarked that he considered the people of this place under great obligation to the Institute for the privileges of participating in the deeply interesting exercises of the week. He could not doubt that the intensely interesting services of the past week, witnessed as they had been by such crowded assemblies of the citizens of the town, would give a new impulse to the cause of public schools in this place. 'We thank you,' said Mr. S. 'for your coming hither, for the pleasant acquaintance we have been permitted to form with you. Our interview has been mutually pleasant. And when you leave us to return to your fields of labor, our best wishes and our most fervent prayers will follow you.

"At this moment of separation, allow me to remind you that your labors are immediately connected with the destinies of the immortal mind. Think not, my friends, that your work is done when you have improved the intellects of your pupils in human science. Forget not the wants of their undying souls. Lead them to God, speak to them of death, judgment, and eternity. Do what you can to train them for heaven.

"Most deeply do I sympathise with you in the exhausting toils, and heart corroding anxieties of your profession. I am about to hasten to the bed side of a beloved child prematurely prostrated by the labors and responsibilities of teaching. O if there be any avocation more than all others, deserving of the sympathy and the prayers of the community, it is yours. Be faithful, for ye know not the day nor the hour when you shall be called hence. Whatever your hands find to do, do it with your might, for in the grave, there is no work, nor device, nor knowledge, nor wisdom."

TEACHERS' NAMES.

NAMES.	PLACE OF TEACHING.	NAMES.	PLACE OF TEACHING.
George C. Wilson,	Manville.	Thomas Davis,	Waterford.
Albert A Gamwel,	Providence.	Zimri N. Cook,	Middletown.
George B. Cooke,	Hartford, Conn.	Simon L. Cotton,	Bristol.
Sylas P. Smith,	Tiverton.	Samuel S. Cotton,	Warren.
Alonzo Leland,	Newport.	Lorenzo I. Maxcy,	Warren.
L. G. Sturtevant,	Newport.	Elizabeth G. Coit,	Bristol.
Cyrus Bean,	Newport.	Caroline A. Robbins,	Newport.
Simon L. Patten,	Bristol.	Mary D. Wyatt.	Bristol.
Burrill Mattison,	West Greenwich.	Elizabeth H. Wardwell,	Bristol.
Alvah Traver,	Tiverton.	Mary A. Wardwell,	Bristol.
A. Perry,	Providence.	Mary A. Lake,	Newport.
Thomas G. Potter,	Portsmouth.	Mary R. Pennis,	Newport.
Albert M. Clark,	Portsmouth.	Phebe R Bradford,	Bristol
J. C. Rich,	Warren.	Margaret M. Luther,	Bristol.
Rufus G. King,	Tiverton.	Betsy M. Kelly,	Tiverton.
Oscar Traver,	Tiverton.	Eleanor W Kelly,	Tiverton.
D. L. Gushee,	Bristol.	Sarah O. Storrs,	Bristol.
Benoni Tillinghast.	West Greenwich.	Nancy Peck,	Bristol.
Rowland G. Weeden,	Jamestown.	Eliza P. Green,	Newport.
Reuben W. Mason,	Portsmouth.	Eliza Howe.	Bristol.
Thomas B. Carr,	Slatersville.	Caroline A. Hartwell,	Middletown.
Orrin P. Gilbert,	Cranston.	Maria Mann.	Pawtucket.
Jonathan H. Card,	South Kingston.	M. Louisa Beal,	Pawtucket.
William F. Legar,	South Kingston.		

PROGRESS OF TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

As Teachers' Institutes have been found, after three years' experience in this State, an important instrumentality in improving the qualifications of teachers, and in advancing the cause of school improvement, it may be interesting to some of our readers to learn their history in other States. We shall therefore devote the remaining pages of this number of the Journal to extracts from such documents as we have received relating to this subject.

CONNECTICUT.

The first of the class of meetings now known as 'Teachers' Institutes', was held in Hartford, Connecticut, in the autumn of 1839, under the invitation and preliminary arrangement of the Secretary of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools. He was induced to make the experiment at his own expense, in order "to show the practicability of making some provision for the better qualification of common school teachers, by giving them an opportunity to revise and extend their knowledge of the studies usually pursued in district schools, and of the best methods of school arrangements, instruction and government under the recitations and lectures of experienced and well known teachers and educators." At the session of the Legislature in May, of the same year, the House of Representatives made an appropriation to be expended for this purpose in the several counties of the State, under the direction of the Board, which was lost in the Senate, on the alleged ground that these classes could not be sustained without a greater expense; and if they could, that the classes would be under instruction for too short a period. What the Legislature refused to do, the Secretary undertook to do himself. A class was formed from such teachers of Hartford county as were disposed to come together on public notice, and placed under the general charge of Mr. Wright, the Principal of the Grammar School. Mr. Wright gave instruction in Grammar and in methods of school keeping. Mr. Post, a teacher in the Grammar School, reviewed the whole subject of Mental and Practical Arithmetic, with full explanations of the difficult points in Fractions, Roots, &c. Professor Davies explained the different parts of the higher Mathematics, so far as they were ever taught in district schools, or would help to explain elementary Arithmetic. Rev. Mr. Barton, formerly connected with the Teachers' Seminary at Andover, gave lessons in Reading. Rev. T. H. Gallaudet explained how Composition could be taught even to the younger classes in school, and gave several familiar lectures on school government, and the instruction of very young children by means of the slate. Mr. Brace, Principal of

Hartford Female Seminary, explained the first principles of Mathematical and Astronomical Geography, the use of Globes, &c. Mr. Snow, Principal of the Centre District School, gave several practical lessons in methods of teaching, with classes in his own school. Mr. Barnard delivered several lectures explanatory of the relations of the teacher to the school system, to parents and their pupils; also on the laws of health to be practically observed by pupils and teachers in the school room; and on the best modes of conducting Teacher's Associations, and interesting parents. A portion of each day was also devoted to oral discussions and written essays on subjects connected with teaching, and to visiting the best schools in Hartford. Before separating, the members of the Teachers' Class published a "Card," expressing "their most cordial thanks, for the very excellent course of instruction which they have been permitted to enjoy during a few weeks past. They also beg leave to present their sincere thanks to those gentlemen who have so kindly instructed them, for the very familiar, lucid and interesting manner in which the different subjects have been presented."

On the success of this experiment the Secretary of the Board, in the Connecticut Common School Journal, for November, 1839, says,

"We have no hesitation in saying that a judicious application of one-fifth of the sum appropriated unanimously by the House of Representatives to promote the education of teachers for common schools, in different sections of the State, would have accomplished more for the usefulness of the coming winter schools and the ultimate prosperity of the school system, than the expenditure of half the avails of the School Fund in the present way. One thousand at least of the eighteen hundred teachers, would have enjoyed an opportunity of critically revising the studies which they will be called upon to teach, with a full explanation of all the principles involved, and with reference to the connection which one branch of knowledge bears to another, and also to the best methods of communicating each, and the adaptation of different methods to different minds. They would have become familiar with the views and methods of experienced teachers, as they are carried out in better conducted schools than those with which they had been familiar. They would have entered upon their schools with a rich fund of practical knowledge, gathered from observation, conversation and lectures; and with many of their own defective, erroneous, and perhaps mischievous views, corrected and improved. Who can tell how many minds will be perverted, how many tempers ruined, how much injury done to the heart, the morals, and the manners of children, in consequence of the injudicious methods of inexperienced and incompetent teachers, the coming winter? The heart, the manners, the morals, the minds of the children are, or should be, in the eye of the State, too precious materials for a teacher to experiment upon, with a view to qualify himself for his profession; and yet the teacher is compelled to do so under the present order of things. He has no opportunity afforded him, as every mechanic has, to learn his trade; and if he had, there is but little inducement held out for him to do this. No man is

so insane as to employ a workman to construct any valuable or delicate piece of mechanism, who is to learn how to do it for the first time on that very article. No one employs any other than an experienced artist to repair a watch. No parent entrusts the management of a lawsuit, involving his property or his reputation, to an attorney who has not studied his profession and given evidence of his ability. No one sends for a physician to administer to his health, who has not studied the human constitution and the nature and uses of medicine. No one sends a shoe to be mended, or a horse to be shod, or a plough to be repaired, except to an experienced workman; and yet parents will employ teachers, who are to educate their children for two worlds—who are to mould and fashion and develop that most delicate, complicated, and wonderful piece of mechanism, the human being, the most delicate and wonderful of all God's creations—to fit them for usefulness in life, to become upright and intelligent witnesses, jurors, electors, legislators and rulers, safe in their power to resist the manifold temptations to vice and crime which will beset their future path, strong and happy in the 'godlike union of right feelings with correct principles.' "

After a Rip Van Winkle sleep of six years, the public ear was startled by the trumpet tones of Professor Porter's Essay "*on the Necessity and Means of Improving the Common Schools of Connecticut*," which received the prize of one hundred dollars offered by James M. Bunce, Esq., of Hartford. In this Essay, among the means of improving the schools, and interesting the public mind, the efficiency of Teachers' Institutes is ably urged.

This suggestion, with another more important, as preliminary to it, viz. the employment of an agent to interest teachers and the public, through lectures, and personal communications, was carried out, principally through the liberality of Mr. Bunce, D. F. Robinson, and other gentlemen in Hartford. Rev. Merrill Richardson was employed to visit every town in Hartford county, and a convention of teachers assembled in Hartford, and continued in session for five days. It numbered two hundred and fifty-four members, and made a powerful and lasting impression on the public mind, besides awakening a lively interest and spirit of improvement in teachers throughout the State. This was followed by several other meetings of the same class, in the winter of 1846–7, and in his Report to the Legislature in May, 1847, the Superintendent of Common Schools, Hon. Seth P. Beers, recommended an annual appropriation for the encouragement of similar meetings in different parts of the State. The Legislature accordingly appropriated the sum of one thousand dollars to be expended by the Superintendent for this purpose; and under arrangements instituted by him, sixteen Institutes, or "Schools for Teachers" have been held during the past autumn, in different parts of the State. Mr. Richardson, who was appointed by the Superintendent

to make the preliminary arrangements, thus speaks of the results in the School Manual for December.

"The State Schools have all been held. In these schools, as near as we can ascertain, about fourteen hundred teachers have been brought together to discuss, and hear discussed, every topic connected with their profession, and to drill and be drilled in all the studies of our public schools. We have heard from nearly all these schools, and we fear no contradiction when we say, they have been highly interesting and profitable to the teachers, and most satisfactory to the citizens who have attended them. The universal conviction is, that they have been just the thing at present needed in our State. The efforts of the past year, then, will be felt in at least fourteen hundred districts of the State. Let it no longer be said that Connecticut cannot be waked from her slumbers, or that her large fund must necessarily paralyze all efforts for the improvement of her public schools. The teachers who have attended these Institutes will carry a report of them into three-fourths of the families throughout the State; and that report, in ninety-nine cases out of the hundred, will be in favor of their utility.

In addition to the labor which the State required of those who conducted these conventions, they have given public addresses during each evening to large and attentive audiences. In this effort to awaken an interest among parents and the citizens generally, they have been assisted by gentlemen of the place where they have met, and in several instances the question for discussion has been debated with a high degree of animation, and has called forth instructive and eloquent speeches. The duties of parents in regard to the punctuality and regularity of their children attending school; the necessity of a comfortable and convenient house, and a healthy atmosphere; the proper classification of schools in order to give teachers time not only to hear scholars *say* their lessons, but to drill them in the study; the importance of the highest possible degree of mental and moral cultivation to all the citizens of our Republic; the subject of school government, including the use of the rod, and the motives proper to be held out to induce children to study and obey; the qualifications necessary for school teachers, and the value of a special training for the profession, including the question of a Teachers' Seminary, are some of the topics which have come up at the evening discussions.

Reading, spelling, writing, drawing, music, geography, arithmetic, grammar, punctuation, pronunciation, and various general exercises for the school, have occupied the hours of the day. The teachers, for the time being, have assumed the position of scholars; thereby giving an opportunity to illustrate the best methods of conducting the studies of the school."

NEW YORK.

The State Superintendent (Hon. Samuel Young) of Common Schools, in his Annual Report to the Legislature, in January, 1844, thus introduces the subject of Teacher's Institutes.

"Since the appointment of county superintendents, and under their influence, new and voluntary associations called "Teachers' Institutes," have been organized in sev-

eral of the counties, from which great improvement has resulted. The first of these institutions was established two years ago under the auspices of the superintendent of Tompkins county. A teacher of thirty years' experience (Salem Town, A. M.) has attended the sessions of several of these voluntary associations, and communicated to them not only the lights of his long practical knowledge, but also the benefits of his ample scientific attainments. In a communication from him to this department, which is herewith transmitted, the course of discipline and instruction pursued in these Institutes is clearly explained. It will be seen that Mr. Town, at the three sessions which he has attended, has aided in imparting instruction to four hundred and thirty-six teachers, of whom two hundred and sixty-six were females and one hundred and seventy males. By thus associating together for two or three weeks in the year, the teachers of a county may communicate to each other every improvement within the knowledge of any one of them: and by listening to lectures, and submitting themselves to the regular discipline of a school, may augment their scientific knowledge, and make great acquisitions in the theory and practice of teaching.

"Poorly as teachers are usually paid, they deserve great credit for the sacrifices of both time and money, to which they thus voluntarily submit, in attending these associations. And strongly impressed with the utility of such associations in the advancement of educational knowledge, I earnestly recommend to the Legislature the passage of a law by which the sum heretofore appropriated to sustain teachers' departments in academies—a system which has to a great extent been a failure—shall be applied in equal portions among the Teachers' Institutes, which may be organized and maintained for at least two weeks in each year, in the several counties in this State."

The following extract from the Report of the Tompkins County Superintendent (J S. Denman, Esq.) of Common Schools, to the State Superintendent, in the autumn of 1843, gives the earliest notice of the first of this class of meetings which was held in the State of New York, where they have since proved the most efficient and popular instrumentality in the improvement of common schools. Mr. Denman had, in October 1842, called the attention of the "Tompkins County Teacher's Association" to the importance of establishing an Institute for the teachers of the county.

"The first Teachers' Institute in the State, and probably in the world, was opened at this place on the fourth day of April, 1843, under the management of the county superintendent, who had employed as instructors the Hon. Salem Town, Rev. David Powell, and Prof. James Thompson, men of profound erudition, and eminent ability. Twenty-eight teachers were in attendance, and received instruction daily for a term of two weeks, in the best modes of governing and teaching the various common branches, (which necessarily included a critical review of those branches,) and were instructed in the analysis of the English language, vocal music, and other branches not heretofore usually taught in common schools. At the close of the term, they left the institute highly pleased and much benefitted; and I am happy to say, having subsequently visited schools taught by several of the members of the institute, that the most approved methods of teaching adopted and recommended at the institute, have been very successfully introduced in most of the schools taught by those who were members; and having previously visited schools taught by teachers who attended the institute, and whose schools I have subsequently visited, it gives me great pleasure to be able to state, that their schools during the past summer have been conducted from fifty to one hundred per cent. better than formerly.

"During the present autumn several institutions have been opened in different sections of the State, and resolutions have been passed in other counties, commending them to the consideration of teachers and others. At the Cayuga County Institute, which was opened at Auburn on the third day of October, and continued a term of two weeks, upwards of two hundred teachers were in attendance. Having been present a portion of the term and witnessed the exercises, and having since learned from E. G. Storke, Esq., the efficient superintendent of that county, of the favorable

close of the institute, I have no hesitation in saying that the result was far more favorable than could have been anticipated by its most sanguine friends. The intelligence and upright deportment of the class in Cayuga, is highly creditable to the county, and the zeal with which they entered on the exercises of the institute is truly commendable to them as teachers. An institute was opened in Rochester in October last, for a term of five days, and one in Wyoming county for a term of ten days, but of the result I have not been informed. I have heard that institutes have been opened in other counties, but have no direct information. The institute in this county was re-opened at this place, on the tenth day of October last, and continued a term of three weeks. One hundred and twenty-nine teachers were in attendance during the term, and in addition to the instruction given in the spring, they were instructed in the mensuration of all superficies and solids, attended to lectures on mental philosophy, history, &c.

"At these institutes, young and inexperienced teachers mingle with those who have had years of experience, the best teachers in the county are usually in attendance, and in some cases married men from thirty to fifty years of age have been regular attendants. Having thus far spoken of the origin and progress of teachers' institutes, I shall now speak of the prospects of their future usefulness. First, they will supply a place in the education of man which has hitherto been vacant. In the schools of different grades, from the common school to the college, a knowledge of the sciences and much other valuable information can be obtained; but in none of them is the art of teaching made a branch of study.

* * * * * * * * * *

"The art of teaching will be treated of in such a manner that those attending will pursue the same plan, thus reducing teaching to a system which will be uniform throughout a county at least, and by this means correcting, to a considerable extent, one of the greatest evils in common schools which has ever resulted from the frequent change of teachers who heretofore have pursued an entirely different course, but who will hereafter pursue the same system.

"As the institute will be attended with but little expense, many who have been educated in the common school or by the domestic fireside, who have heretofore, for want of means, been unable to avail themselves of any other instruction, will attend, compare views, and become acquainted with the plans pursued by others; the experience of each will become available to all, and thus many new ideas of the sciences and art of teaching will be obtained; teachers whose opportunities have been limited will mingle with those whose advantages have been good, from the location of the institute; the rust of the backwoodsman will be worn away by mingling for a time with the most intelligent and refined citizens of the county; and teachers will not hereafter exhibit that want of refinement which has ever been visible in many of that class, and brought burlesque and ridicule on the whole profession.

"Teachers will become acquainted and enter into the feelings and sympathies of each other, and hereafter will labor to assist and support each his brother, which is the opposite of what they have formerly done. Teachers will here discover that there is much for them to learn; they will be directed in a proper course of self-culture, and stimulated to prosecute their studies with increased zeal. Teachers will be convened at times just preceding their commencing school, and as the institutes will be under the management of those who are best acquainted with the wants of the schools, such instruction will be given as can be made most beneficial; county superintendents will be enabled to hold up the absurd practices of many teachers in such a light as to cause them to be shunned by all, and through their instructors, present the most approved methods of teaching in such manner as to induce all to accept them: and finally, any improvement which it may be thought advisable to introduce into common schools, such as new methods of teaching, branches of study, &c., can be better introduced through the medium of institutes than in any other way heretofore adopted. Through the medium of teachers' institutes, and in no other way yet devised, the influence of able and efficient instructors can easily be brought to bear upon all the schools in the State."

Prior to the holding of the Institute described in the foregoing extracts, Mr. Stephen R. Sweet had suceeded in establishing at Kingsboro, in Fulton County, New York, a "temporary Normal School," which was opened on the 6th of September, 1842, and continued in session eight

weeks, at a charge of $3 for the term, or fifty cents per week. The circular put forth by Mr. Sweet, states, among other things, that

"The school is designed to afford gentlemen and ladies an opportunity to qualify themselves for teaching, and offers peculiar inducements to those who intend to teach common schools during the ensuing winter.

"The mutual system of instruction will be adopted as far as possible, and frequent discussions will be held on the best mode of teaching and governing schools.

"Teachers who wish to become acquainted with improved methods of instruction, will be greatly benefitted by spending what time they can at this institution, though it should be but a few weeks."

An account of this school, while in progress, was communicated to the State Superintendent by Mr. Sprague, the Deputy Superintendent, and published in the appendix to his Annual Report for 1842. The following is an extract:

"Forty students entered their names as scholars, and the number has since increased to between sixty and seventy, with a prospect of some more before the close of the school. There are 23 females, most of whom, with the male students, are intending to qualify for teaching. The majority have had some experience in teaching, and several have made it a profession for several years past. This I consider an interesting and important fact, because it shows that temporary Normal Schools will call together actual teachers, and those too, who would teach, if no special efforts were made for their imporovement.

"The school opens at 9 o'clock A. M. by reading the Scriptures, and prayer. A general exercise follows on arithmetic, consisting of lectures and demonstrations from the blackboard, by the principal and students in turn. Lectures have been given by the students on notation, numeration, addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, the denominate numbers, reduction and fractions; and a course of lectures has been given by the principal on ratio and proportion, with a practical application to the rule of three direct, inverse and compound rule of three. In addition to this exercise in arithmetic, the whole school is divided into four classes; each class spending one half hour per day in the solution of problems on a blackboard and in reading, the teacher telling how to solve them, and the reason of their operation.

"Particular attention is given to the principles of arithmetic and its practical application to the business of life. There are two classes in algebra and two in natural philosophy. Algebra has had a tendency to withdraw the attention of the students from the elementary branches; consequently less attention will be given to this branch during the remainder of the term.

"The whole school is exercised daily in linear drawing, including most of the figures in geometry.

"Considerable attention has been given to penmanship, but not as much as its importance demands. An accomplished writing master, Horace E. Smith, Esq., of this county, has been engaged to teach this art, which will claim special attention during the term.

"The students are required to recite regular lessons in geography, taking their regular turn in hearing the recitations. Then follows a general exercise of the whole school, called classifying, or in other words, repeating in concert, and repeating twice, the names of the different States and Kingdoms of the world, with their capitals, the oceans, seas, gulfs, bays, principal lakes, rivers, &c. The exercise is very interesting and profitable, as students will gain a knowledge of the names and situations of places much sooner in this way than any other with which I am acquainted. This exercise is followed by a lecture on the globe.

"In English grammar, the females constitute one class; the males another: and about three-quarters of an hour every day has been occupied by each class in parsing, correcting false syntax, &c. Then follows a general exercise of the whole school, consisting of lectures by the students alternately, parsing difficult sentences, correcting grammatical errors which occur in daily conversation, with discussions on disputed points in grammar. One composition a week is required of every student, which is corrected by the principal in the presence of the writer.

"The whole school exercise daily upon the sounds of the letters and the principles of

orthography. Great attention is given to elocution and reading. In addition to a daily exercise in concert by the whole school in recitation including the elementary sounds of the English language, difficult specimens in articulations and the best and most difficult pieces in our language: five students declaim every day, so that each young gentleman has an opportunity to declaim several times during the term. The exercises are intended to cultivate and improve the voice, train the organs of speech, improve the articulation, pronunciation and taste of the pupil. The classes are required to define the most important words in their lessons, and much care is taken to have them understand the meaning of what they read, and to convey the meaning in the most agreeable manner, to others. Attention is given to the grammatical and rhetorical pauses, emphasis, quantity and quality of voice, and every thing neccessary to enable the pupil to read with beauty, force and variety. I have never known greater improvement made in the above particulars in so short a time, than has been made at this school. The principal is very particular to have the students convey their ideas correctly and in a distinct manner. Interesting discussions are held upon the best modes of teaching the several branches, &c. The school has attracted much attention, and I am satisfied that if nothing happens to mar our prospects, the result will answer the expectations of Mr. Sweet, myself, the students and the public generally, and will prove an efficient aid in bringing about a reform in the common schools of our county; and if the same plan can be carried out in other counties, a complete and thorough reform will be manifest throughout the State."

At the close of the school a teachers' association for the county was formed, and the following resolution was adopted:

"*Resolved*, That a system of temporary Normal Schools would be an efficient aid in producing the so much desired reform in our common school system, and the late Kingsboro Normal School, under the charge of Mr S. R. Sweet, has been productive of results that will tell favorably upon the county of Fulton and education generally."

In his introductory address, Mr. Sweet exclaimed "that the county bearing the name of *Fulton* shall be the favored spot to put into operation a nobler and more powerful engine, than that of steam, to elevate the character of our common schools."

We have before us the catalogues and proceedings of more than fifty Teachers' Institutes held in the State of New York, all of which contain an expression of opinion on the part of the members and others, of the utility of this class of meetings. We extract the following from the proceedings of a meeting in Otsego County:

"The beneficial results arising from these institutions, when well sustained and properly conducted, are palpable to the most casual observer; and of their utility as a means of elevating and improving the character of our Common Schools, there cannot exist a reasonable doubt. Their influences are already extensively felt in this county and throughout the State; and in a majority of the counties, Teachers' Institutes are regularly organized, annually or semi-annually, with the most triumphant success. They constitute the principal agencies through which the benefits of the State Normal School are to be diffused among the people, and invigorate the whole school system. The county pupils meet the teachers of the several counties in County Institutes assembled from every town and section of their county, and in the consequent interchange of sentiments and opinions, impart to the teachers of the county all that is valuable in the improved methods of teaching and conducting elementary instruction, as developed and illustrated in the Normal School by the most enlightened practical educationists of the age.

"Hitherto these Institutes have been sustained entirely by the voluntary contributions of the teachers themselves, many of whom, especially the females, receive so small a compensation for their services as to render it a very onerous tax upon them, to defray all the expenses incident to attendance upon the Institutes. And as the public are to participate largely in their benefits, we deem it important and just, in order to sustain this connecting link between the State Normal School, so inseparably connected with the success of both, that an appropriation be made by the State to each county to defray the expenses of the Boards of Instruction and Lecturers and all the incidental expenses of the Institutes, leaving the teachers to bear no other burthen than the loss of their time and the payment of boarding expenses: therefore,

"*Resolved*, That we will use all reasonable measures to procure from the Legislature an appropriation out of the 'unappropriated surplus of the School Fund, set apart for literary purposes,' to aid in defraying the expenses of Teachers' Institutes in every county of the State."

After an experience of their utility for five years, during which period they have been held in every county in the State, and in many counties, every year, and some years twice a year, for that period of time, and after repeated recommendations of their claims by the State Superintendent to the aid of the State, the Legislature, in November last, passed an act in their behalf. By this act a sum not exceeding sixty dollars annually to any one county, is appropriated for the use and benefit of Teachers' Institutes in the several counties—whenever said Institutes shall have numbered fifty members in all counties with upwards of thirty thousand inhabitants, and of thirty members in counties with less than thirty thousand inhabitants, and shall have continued in session at least ten working days. Each Institute to be under the management of a committee consisting of three Town Superintendents, appointed by the clerk of the county in which it is held.

We close this notice of the Institutes in New York with a letter from Mr. Page, the accomplished Principal of the State Normal School, published in the December number of the District School Journal.

Mr. Editor—Having spent the autumn vacation of our school in travelling among the Teachers' Institutes, I am not unwilling to comply with your request that I should furnish for your excellent Journal "some account of what I have done and what I have seen."

First, with regard to what I have *done*, I have but little to say, especially if you refer to the *quality* of the labor performed. If you desire to know the *quantity*, I may say that I have travelled some 1600 miles,—have visited Institutes in *eleven* different counties of the State, in the order in which they are mentioned, viz.: Madison, Erie, Chautauque, Herkimer, Schoharie, Delaware, Chenango, Onondaga, Wayne, Livingston, and Oneida. In these eleven Institutes I have met something more than one thousand of the teachers of the common schools, and have had the privilege of lecturing to them to the number of forty-seven times. In

most of the places where I have been I have also addressed the citizens on their "Relations to the School and the Teacher." In addition to this I have partaken largely, but with a grateful heart, of the unbounded hospitality which has every where been extended to me,—have reciprocated, as far as I was able, the kindness and confidence evinced towards me by the teachers, superintendents and citizens wherever I have been; and have returned to my home cheered and encouraged for the winter's duties; and, I am happy to add, now that I have recovered from the fatigue and excitement of long speaking and laborious riding, I find I have very much improved my health. Thus much for what I done.

Secondly, what have I *seen?* I have seen at every turn, new demonstration that "New York is a 'great State,'"—great in extent of territory, great in its resources, great in its enterprize, great in its progress, great in what it has done for the advancement of education, and great in the abundant room there is to do still more. I have seen in most of the counties visited a very commendable interest manifested in the cause of education, and in some of them an enthusiasm beyond my expectation. I have seen in some of the counties fifty, in others one hundred and fifty, and in one, CHAUTAUQUE, *one hundred and seventy-five* of the teachers of common schools, gathered together for the purpose of improving themselves in their important calling. Yes, I have seen—and it was an affecting sight—I have seen the rare spectacle, (*rare* I mean for any other class but that of the teacher,) of the *employed* in a calling as yet but poorly paid, meeting together by hundreds, at their own expense of time and money, to consult upon the best methods of interesting their *employers* in the very work which most of all things should claim their spontaneous zeal, viz. the education of their own offspring. Why should it be necessary, thought I, as one evening I listened to a discussion as to the "best mode of enlisting the interest and co-operation of parents," why should it be necessary to incite parents to a duty so manifestly incumbent upon them? Why should parents, who have voluntarily assumed the relation and responsibility of parents, need to be *excited* to a work they cannot innocently neglect? And I began to inquire why it is that the teachers, unlike any other class of employed persons, should collect themselves in bodies of this sort to spend a portion of their scanty earnings and their precious time, to fit themselves to do their work more successfully? Who ever heard of mechanics, or workmen, or clerks, or any other class of employed persons taking such measures to improve themselves, and to promote the interest of their employers? Who, indeed, ever heard of a *Parents' Institute?* The answers to these questions speak volumes for the teachers of our State. They show that they are not content to plod on in the beaten path of the dusty past, but that they are mindful that EXCELSIOR is indeed "emblazoned on the arms of the Empire State." I have seen among the teachers themselves generally a very commendable enthusiasm. This indeed might be expected; for none but those who have an interest in their work will come together for a purpose like this. Those who have no desire to improve themselves for their duties, will of course remain away from such gatherings.

I must, in justice to the teachers of the State, say that I have also seen a large share of intelligence among them. In all of their Institutes,—while it was apparent there were many *very young* teachers with very limited

qualifications to take charge of the training of the immortal mind, and many others who were more advanced in age without the requisite knowledge of *what to teach*, and under whose guidance the children must be imperfectly instructed,—still there were very many whose attainments and views of teaching would do honor to any State, and whose services would be a blessing to any district; men and women of enlarged minds and mature experience, and evidently pervaded with a sense of the greatness of their work.

I have seen a great diversity in their manner of conducting the various Institutes. In some there was efficient organization, systematic instruction, and consequently an all-pervading interest among the members. In others the organization, if there was any, was cumbrous, and the exercises were not arranged with reference to a grand result, but came up at the extemporaneous suggestion of circumstances, and of course there was a painful listlessness among those in attendance. While on this point, I may add, I have seen the vast importance of having these Institutes *well conducted*. So far as my observation has extended, those Institutes have been most useful, in which some competent practical teacher has been engaged as Principal, and clothed with full power to lay out the work in his own way. In an Institute as in a school, it very much impedes the free action of the machinery, to have the power transmitted through too many hands,—and I have usually observed considerable *friction* where all the arrangements were to be brought out through the agency of a committee. In my honest opinion, it would generally be far the best policy to commit the whole management of an Institute to some competent person, (if he was neither author nor agent of some school book, so much the better,) and then allow him to throw the whole weight of his character, and the whole sum of his ingenuity into it, and hold him responsible for the results. He would of course need assistants, and usually those who are competent could be found in every county.

From what *I have seen*, I judge that a crisis has come in the history of Institutes in this State,—and they are hereafter to stand or fall, according as they are conducted. The teachers can not afford to "spend their money for that which is not bread, and their labor for that which *satisfieth not*," and they will not come together many times, unless proper instruction is provided for them. Those who have this matter in charge would do well to make judicious and seasonable provision for competent instruction before they publish the *call* for an Institute,—and I can not too earnestly enjoin upon all such, *strict honesty* in their announcements, for if they advertise the names of gentlemen whom they have no reason to expect will attend, just for the purpose of calling together a larger number of teachers, they will very justly call down upon their own heads the indignation and rebuke of the parties imposed upon. I must be allowed to add, that I have learned, to my extreme mortification, that in two or three counties my own name has been thus used, in cases where I had not given the slightest encouragement that I could be present, and in one instance where I had not even been invited. *Institutes can not be sustained by such measures.*

In conclusion, I may say, I have on the whole seen nothing to diminish, but much to strengthen my convictions of the utility of Teachers' Institutes, provided they are ably conducted and confined to their legitimate objects. They are exposed to dangers and abuses,—but only to such

as may with prudence be averted. Perhaps one of the most threatening dangers is, the belief recently expressed by a few men of but limited practical knowledge in educational affairs, that these Institutes with their sessions of *ten days* in a year, may become the substitutes for schools for more thorough training; and that boys and girls may escape the drudgery of study in the academies and higher schools, in the patient acquirement of *what to teach*,—and by rushing through a ten days' session in an Institute may come forth perfectly qualified to act as teachers of the young. This notion, visionary as it manifestly is, is destined to be pressed upon public attention, and the true friends of education are to decide how far such a vagary shall find currency in the community.

The true object of a Teachers' Institute is to refresh the memories of those who are about to engage in teaching, as to the things they *have before learned*, by means of hasty reviews of the branches to be taught; to impart to them, in as brief a time as possible, such practical hints, with reference to teaching, as experience may suggest; to breathe into them, as far as may be, the spirit of their calling; to enkindle in them aspirations of a true professional feeling, and to enlighten them, as far as it can be done in a limited time, upon the best methods of school government and school arrangement. With this object in view, and with judicious care in conducting the exercises in them, I most sincerely believe Teachers' Institutes will be one of the valuable instrumentalities in elevating the profession of a teacher; and I rejoice that the Legislature has granted an appropriation to alleviate the burdens of the teachers in sustaining them.

In conclusion, I beg leave to return my most sincere thanks to all those persons who so cordially welcomed me to their respective counties, and who spared no pains to render my stay with them both pleasant and instructive to me. May all those teachers who endeavored to improve their qualifications for their work by attending the Institutes, ever remember that "Heaven helps those who help themselves;" and may the blessing of God abundantly crown their labors with success.

D. P. PAGE.

State Normal School, Nov. 17, 1847.

MASSACHUSETTS.

The Secretary of the Board of Education in Massachusetts, was enabled, by the donation of one thousand dollars from Hon. Edmund Dwight, to demonstrate the utility of this class of meetings, by holding four Institutes in different sections of the State, in the autumn of 1846, an account of which was given in his Ninth Annual Report, and which was copied into the Extra Journal, Vol. I, p. 91. The Legislature, in the following year, placed twenty-five hundred dollars a year at the disposal of the Board of Education, to defray certain expenses incident to this class of meetings. Mr. Mann thus speaks of those which were held in the autumn of 1847.

"In pursuance of the liberal provisions, made by the Legislature, at its last session, for Teachers' Institutes, six of those interesting meetings have been held. Owing to the lateness of the day when the act was passed, it was found impossible to hold any Institute before the time usually assigned for opening the summer schools. The six, therefore, which have been held, were all held during the long vacation which intervenes between the summer and winter schools. As the Institutes were required by law to remain in session for a period not less than ten working days, and as a day must be allowed both for going and returning, each one would take a fortnight. Six Institutes, then, successively and continuously held, would occupy three months, which, being a longer period of time than intervenes between the summer and winter schools, it was found necessary to overlap them;—to begin a second Institute before the previous one had closed. I attended all of them in person, and spent as much time at each, as this unavoidable arrangement would allow. The aggregate number of members was between four and five hundred. As a very general rule, the members appeared deeply interested in their work, and laudably anxious to reach a higher degree of fitness for their arduous and responsible office.

More females than males attended. This was true of each of the Institutes.

No special measures were adopted in order to institute a comparison between the sexes, as to their relative attainments. In orthography, however, on comparing the number of words misspelt by the young men and the young women,—the words put out to both being the same,—it was found that the errors of the former were about thirty-three per cent. more than of the latter.

One advantage of the Institutes, which, so far as I know, was not anticipated by any one, but which has been beautifully exemplified in practice, is the means which they afford for introducing singing into our schools. An instructor in vocal music has attended all the meetings, and has been able, in the majority of cases, to impart such a degree of rudimentary knowledge as will enable its recipients to introduce vocal music, or rote-singing, into their schools. Opportunities are thus afforded for supplying a great and long-neglected defect.

The general course of instruction and management was substantially the same as that pursued last year, and detailed in my Ninth Annual Report. Repetition is unnecessary."

In his summary of the school system of Massachusetts, in his Tenth Annual Report, Mr. Mann thus speaks of Teachers' Institutes.

"186. Teachers' Institutes are assemblies of teachers, of one or of both sexes, for the purpose of being taught. In other words, a Teachers' Institute is a school composed of teachers and of persons intending to become such, who assemble to spend a longer or a shorter time together, for the purpose of improvement in the art of teaching. The duration of the meeting is not fixed. It is longer or shorter, according to the ability and zeal of the members. It is not known that any one has been held for a shorter period than one week. Some have continued six weeks. As an instrumentality adapted to the improvement of teachers at large, Institutes were first introduced in the State of New York. They are now

held in various States,—New York, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New Hampshire, Vermont, Ohio, Michigan, Pennsylvania, and perhaps others.

187. Massachusetts was the first State to afford Legislative encouragement to Teachers' Institutes. The sum of twenty-five hundred dollars a year is placed at the disposal of the Board of Education, to defray certain expenses incident to this class of meetings. Stat. 1846, ch. 99, § 3.

188. Whenever "reasonable assurance" is given to the Board, that a number of teachers of Common Schools, not less than seventy, shall desire to assemble for the purpose of forming a Teachers' Institute, and to remain in session for a period not less than ten working days, the Board, by a committee, or by their Secretary, or, in case of his inability, by such person or persons as they may delegate, are to appoint a time and place for a meeting, make suitable arrangements therefor, and give due notice thereof. Stat. 1846, ch. 99, § 1.

189. The Board or their committee or appointee, must engage teachers and lecturers for each Institute they may call; provide rooms, fires, lights, attendance and so forth; but for these purposes, they are not authorized to expend on any one Institute, a greater sum than two hundred dollars. By a regulation of the Board, the personal expenses of the Secretary of the Board, incurred in calling and attending the Institutes, may be defrayed from said sum of two hundred dollars; but no allowance is made for his services. Ib. § 2. See 139, 140. The personal expenses of the members for travel, board and so forth, are to be defrayed by themselves.

190. The committee of the Board, its Secretary, or, in his absence, the person appointed by them, or him, stands in the same relation to the Institute in which a teacher stands to his school.

191. The instruction at the Institutes is designed to be of such a character as shall furnish a model for Common School exercises, although the former will naturally partake more of the oral method than the latter. Owing to the shortness of the time during which the Institutes are held, they can do but little besides giving some practical skill,—some knowledge of the art of teaching. For a mastery of principles, or an indoctrination into the science of teaching, the Normal Schools must be the main and the only unfailing reliance, in any system of Common Schools.

192. The evenings of the session are usually occupied by debates, or by lecturers who treat of any of the important topics embraced in the vast range of Common School interests."

OHIO.

The Secretary of State, Hon Samuel Galloway, in his Report on the Common Schools of the State, for the year 1846, commends the establishment of Institutes to the attention of the Legislature and the people.

"The most approved and efficient plan for elevating the profession of teachers, is the establishment of Normal Schools. This is an institution which characterizes advanced educational effort and improvement, and can only vigorously thrive in popular governments, where abundant means and a high degree of general intelligence prevail. When subordinate and more necessary agencies have succeeded in inculcating upon

the public mind enlarged and correct views of the nature and benefits of full intellectual and moral cultivation, then this higher instrumentality may be added, and it will become a similarly appropriate relation to a highly improved system of education, that the locomotive and steamship do to the extended business, enterprise and resources of a high state of civilization. It is unnecessary to discuss the utility of seminaries for teachers, or to indulge enthusiasm by a description of the advantages bestowed upon public schools in Prussia, Holland, Switzerland, or other lands, where the experiment has been fully tested. We are not ready, pecuniarily or intellectually, for their adoption. The most practicable and economical mode of securing these benefits in a limited degree, would be, to provide a special department in our colleges and higher institutions of learning, for the education of teachers. It would certainly be a commendable measure, if those who preside over our State universities would organize such departments, and present inducements to indigent but worthy men, to qualify themselves as teachers. A measure of this kind, vigorously and liberally prosecuted, would return, in a few years a manifold remuneration for the patronage bestowed.

There is no plan so well calculated to produce a reform in the character of teachers, as those recent but rapidly extending associations designated as "Teachers' Institutes." The prominent object of this institution is, to prepare teachers for a full and successful discharge of their duties. At these meetings, which are usually held semi-annually, and for a period of two or three weeks, the teachers form themselves into a school, and prescribe regulations, recitations and exercises similar to those which ought to exist in well conducted schools; each teacher in turn becomes a learner or preceptor, and this alternate position depends upon his inferiority or superiority in a particular department of study. All have an opportunity of exhibiting the extent and variety of their attainments; and their respective acquirements become common capital, from which they may equally draw. Although for their mutual edification and advancement, topics of science and literature beyond the ordinary reach of the highest studies in common or private schools may be examined, yet special attention is given to those branches which command attention in their respective spheres of labor. These are critically reviewed and analyzed, and all that had been doubtful, difficult and unexplained to any, is subjected to the concentrated light of all. Modes of instruction and discipline, with their errors and advantages, and varied application to temperament, age, sex, condition, and mental and moral peculiarities, and all other matters relating to the profession of teaching, are submitted to full consultation, advice and discussion.

Another object contemplated by these "Institutes," is to enlighten and concentrate public sentiment. To secure this our public evening sessions are held, at which the nature and importance of education, and the duties, obligations and responsibilities of all classes are, by discussion and lectures, prominently presented and pressed upon public attention.

The first of these schools (as they may appropriately be termed,) for teachers, was instituted by Henry Barnard, Esq., of Connecticut, in 1839. The same plan of action which he devised was adopted in New York, and to an association organized in that State in 1843, was first given the

name of "Teachers' Institute." There are now many organizations of this description in the State, at which, semi-annually, from one to two hundred male and female teachers attend. They now exist in four of the New England States, New York, Michigan, Illinois, and Ohio.

The first "Institute" in Ohio was established in Sandusky City, under the auspices of Hon. Ebenezer Lane, and other citizens of that place, and by the superintendence of Salem Town, Esq., of N. Y., a gentleman of enlarged experience in matters of education.

[Here follows a table, showing the places where ten other Institutes were held during the same year.]

From this table it will be seen that an aggregate of nearly one thousand have been instructed in these schools. Those who have corresponded with this department speak in the highest terms of the result of the experiment. The following extract from the catalogues of two Institutes, indicate the design and sentiments of their patrons.

"Whereas, we believe that the want of unanimity in opinion among teachers, and of uniformity in the method of communicating instruction in schools, is one of the greatest defects in the present Common School System in Ohio; and whereas, we believe the practice of assembling teachers, from time to time, for the purpose of practical instruction on all subjects connected with teaching and governing schools, and giving opportunity for the free interchange of opinion among themselves, and the communication of the results of their own experience, would be one of the most efficient means for giving an impulse to the cause of education; therefore,

"*Resolved*, That we hail the introduction of TEACHERS' INSTITUTES into this State as the dawn of a new era in the cause of common school education, and that we cordially recommend the organization of such *Institutes* in every county in the State.

"*Resolved*, That we recommend to the friends of education to memorialize the Legislature of the State in favor of endowing *Teachers' Institutes*, and making them a part of the *School System* of Ohio."—*Sandusky City Institute.*

"*Resolved*, That we hail with unfeigned satisfaction the organization of the 'Teachers' Institute' in Ohio; that the success of this Institute has more than realized our most sanguine expectations, and that we believe that such schools for teachers are eminently calculated to elevate the standard of common school education.—*Geauga County Institute.*

"Were this same instrumentality extensively adopted in Ohio, it would breathe the spirit of a new creation upon our common school system. These associations must tend to produce a professional spirit and independence; an enlarged view of the dignity and responsibility of the teacher's vocation; unity of purpose and harmony of action; ambition to attain the highest standard which may be exhibited by any teacher; imitation of the best modes of instruction and discipline; and active co-operation in all that is calculated to promote general intelligence."

Recent communications from Ohio speak of the success of this new agency in school improvement in the most encouraging terms. The Catalogue of the Summit County Teachers' Institute, held in Akron, from the 25th of October to the 6th of November, includes the names of "289 persons who have taught, or are preparing to teach, besides more than 50 others who were not preparing to teach, but attended for the purpose of receiving instruction. Large numbers of spectators attended daily, and the evenings were devoted to discussion and lectures on topics connected

with the subject of education, in which the large audience were deeply interested." Among the resolutions adopted were the following:

"*Resolved*, That Teachers' Institutes are well calculated to arouse teachers to a proper appreciation of their responsibilities and duties, to such a unity of effort and action as will tend to the adoption of a uniform and proper system of instruction.

"*Resolved*, That this session of the Summit County Teachers' Institute has more than realized our expectations, and, that we cheerfully tender our sincere thanks to the 'Board of Instructors' for the very able and satisfactory manner in which they have conducted the exercises of the class—also to the presiding officer and other officers of the Institute, and to the citizens of Akron for their generous hospitality, and that our hearty thanks be tendered to those who have addressed us during the present session, and that we only regret our inability to give their several addresses a publication for the benefit of community.

"*Resolved*, That we will endeavor, while engaged in our several schools, to place all matters connected with education in their true light before the public, and that our efforts shall demonstrate that we care more for the improvement of those committed to our charge than for the remuneration we shall receive for our labors.

"*Resolved*, That we recommend th holding of one or two sessions of this Institute in 1848, and for this purpose we recommend the appointment of a committee of six, whose duty it shall be to decide upon the expediency of holding a session somewhere in the county in the spring, and if it is decided to hold a session at that time, to make all necessary arrangements for said Institute. If there is no session of the Institute in the spring, it shall be the duty of said committee to make all necessary arrangements and call an Institute in this place in the fall."

It is due to Mr. A. D. Lord, (formerly Principal of the Lake County Teachers' Seminary, and now Superintendent of the Common Schools of Columbus, and Editor of the Ohio Common School Journal,) to say that it is mainly through his indefatigable agency, and to his judicious management of the early Institutes held in Ohio, that their introduction has been so rapid and attended with such beneficial results in that State.

In the Ohio Common School Journal for September and October, he makes the following suggestions respecting the exercises of a well conducted Teachers' Institute.

"The best mode of securing to Teachers such an education as the interests of our youth and the well being of the country require, is, doubtless, through the medium of Normal Schools, or Teachers' Seminaries, devoted entirely to this work. But in the absence of such schools, and of any adequate provision for their education, the only mode in which the present generation of Teachers can be improved, (aside from their own unaided efforts for self improvement,) is through the agency of Teachers' Institutes.

The exercises of a well conducted Institute continued for two weeks may be divided into three general classes.

I. A review of the branches usually taught in common schools with exemplifications of the mode of teaching and illustrating those branches to the different classes of pupils, and of introducing general exercises, and instruction in other subjects which should be taught orally in all our schools.

II. Lectures on the classification of pupils, the theory of teaching, the duties of the Teacher both as an instructor and an educator, and the best modes of governing schools, securing order, regularity in attendance, diligence in study, propriety in deportment, &c.

III. Evening lectures intended to enlarge the views of Teachers, and to awaken the community to a more lively and intelligent interest in the cause of education.

The instruction which it is desirable to have given in the first class of exercises, may be arranged under the following heads; first, the English language; second, Arithmetic and its applications; third, Geography, History and the Science of Government; fourth, Physiology; fifth, Mental Philosophy. To which it is well to add Vocal Music, if time will permit.

Under the first of these heads, four courses of lessons should be given, viz: 1. A course of at least five lessons on the the subject of Reading, accompanied by remarks on the mode of teaching it, and exercises, by the class, under the direction of the Lecturer. 2 Lessons on the Elementary sounds and the Orthography of our language, accompanied by exercises in the utterance of the sounds, in orthographic parsing, and instruction upon the best modes of teaching the sounds of the language, and the correct spelling and pronunciation of words. 3. Lessons in Etymology, or the Analysis of derivative words into their radical parts, prefixes, suffixes, &c. 4. Lessons in English Grammar and the Syntactical analysis of the language, accompanied by exercises in parsing, and instruction in regard to the modes of teaching this science orally to younger pupils.

Under the second head it is desirable to have three courses of lessons. 1. Exercises in Mental Arithmetic, and instruction in the best modes of teaching it to all classes of pupils. 2. A thorough review of the principles of the science of numbers, including a demonstration of the rules, and an analysis of all the operations employed. 3. The application of Arithmetic to Mensuration, Practical Geometry, &c.

Under the third head, lessons should be given, 1. Upon Mathematical Geography, the use of Globes, the theory of Planetary Motion, &c. 2. Upon Physical Geography, the divisions of the earth's surface, the causes of climate, of atmospheric and marine currents, the theory of earthquakes and volcanoes, and a course of lessons on outline maps. 3. Upon Civil Geography, including a description of the manners, customs, religion and government of the inhabitants of different countries, to which should be added, if possible, something of the History at least, of our own country, and a few lessons on the science of Government.

Under the head of Penmanship, it is desirable to have instruction given, 1. Upon the mode of teaching the younger pupils to write on slates and on the blackboard. 2. Upon the mode of teaching to older pupils the use of the pen, and the art of pen-making, and upon the culture of the eye and the discipline of the muscles of the hand and arm. 3. Lessons should, if practicable, be given in the principles of Linear Drawing, and the ease with which the art of drawing outline maps upon the blackboard and the slate, and subsequently upon paper, may be acquired, should be clearly set forth, and the utility of the practice should be urged upon all Teachers.

Perhaps there are few branches in which Teachers are more generally deficient, and in which pupils take less interest than in penmanship. May not this be attributed, mainly, to the neglect of Drawing in our schools?

In Physiology, beside a definition of the science, and a general description of the human system and its different classes of organs, it is highly

important that a simple and intelligible account should be presented of the more important vital functions, including the processes of respiration, digestion, circulation, &c., to which should be added a summary of the more important laws of health. This is a subject of the highest interest to all classes of the community, and it becomes teachers of youth to be well acquainted with all the laws of life and health, that they may be fully competent to instruct their pupils, and to assist them in the formation of such habits as will conduce to health and comfort, and guard them against the formation of habits which must inevitably injure health and shorten life.

In Mental Philosophy, it is not desirable to have any discussion of intricate questions, or disputed points in Metaphysics; but, 1, an intelligible definition of the science, and a brief description of the nature of the human mind, and the more obvious differences between it and the material organization it inhabits, and 2, a correct classification of the faculties of the mind, with a description of the office or function of each, and, of its appropriate sphere of action, and the proper means for cultivating and developing each, of stimulating those which are inactive, and of securing, in short, the harmonious development of every faculty and susceptibility of our nature.

Under the second class of exercises the importance of a judicious classification of pupils should be clearly set forth; the advantages to be gained by instructing even those learning the alphabet, in classes, the value of illustrations on the blackboard, and by means of maps, diagrams and other apparatus, and the necessity of frequent reviews of every thing which has been studied, should be urged upon the attention of all teachers; and the plan of having all the school, (except perhaps the very youngest scholars,) divided into two or three classes for the purpose of attending to general exercises in spelling, reading, mental arithmetic, geography and other studies, cannot be too strongly recommended, nor can the old practice of hearing pupils recite individually, whenever they may have a lesson ready, be too strongly reprehended.

If a proper classification of the powers of the mind has been presented in the lectures on mental philosophy, the teacher will readily understand that it is comparatively useless to communicate instruction, unless a *desire for knowledge* exists in the mind of the pupil; that without this all the incitement to study will be nearly powerless, and that when this is once awakened, it is comparatively easy to give it a right direction, and that henceforward the acquisition of knowledge is a pleasure from which the pupil can hardly be restrained, rather than a task to which he must be urged or driven. The young teacher will thus perceive, that to awaken this desire, when it does not exist, should be his first business, and the mode of doing this, by imparting life and interest to every exercise, by relating anecdotes, by stating and explaining important or curious facts, by performing simple experiments, and presenting intelligible illustrations of the subjects taught in their several studies, should be exemplified to the class.

In these and other ways, the teacher may be shown that the true way of interesting pupils in any study, is to lead them to exercise their own minds, to discover truth for themselves; and that he should do nothing *for* them which they can, by a little aid, do for themselves, that he should

not even answer an important question, directly, but, rather by a series of questions proposed to the pupil, lead him to a discovery of the true answer.

Teachers may thus be shown the wide difference between *teaching* and *educating:* that while the mere teacher aims only to communicate a given amount of instruction or information, the educator endeavors to develop in proper order and proportions, the faculties of the pupil's mind, that he communicates instruction, and endeavors to incite to study and thought, rather as a means to this end, than as the only object of effort. The importance of this distinction, and, of an acquaintance with the faculties of the mind and the proper means of developing them, has, hitherto, been quite too little appreciated.

The subject of school government deserves no little attention; the requisites for its successful administration, the objects it aims to accomplish, the means of accomplishing them, the motives to which the teacher should, or should not appeal, the influence of different classes of motives, the nature of penalties and the objects of punishment, and the natural effect or tendency of different modes of governing schools should be fully discussed. No person should enter a school, as a teacher, without having taken special pains to inform himself on this subject. Till this is done we can hardly expect any other result than that more than half of those who attempt to teach, will 'fail in government;' and it is for those who conduct Teachers' Institutes to show that this subject needs to be studied, that the ability to govern a school is not a gift with which some are born and which no others can acquire, but an attainment which all may, by the use of proper means, make their own, at least, to some considerable, if not, to the same, extent.

II. The topics suitable to be presented in evening addresses are numerous, and must of course vary with the circumstances and the place. It should be remarked, however, that no prosing lectures on the general subject of education, from men who have given little or no attention to the subject, will be found useful to teachers. Spirited addresses by sound, practical, common sense men, acquainted with the subject on which they speak, are always to be preferred, if they can be secured.

Among the subjects which may be presented with profit, are the following: The importance of making teaching a profession, and of providing for the proper education of those engaged in the employment. The claims of Common Schools—their wants, and the means of elevating them to the rank they should hold—the duty of society and of government in regard to the education of all its youth—the plan of Union Schools in villages and densely populated districts—the importance of making Physiology and the science of Government, studies in the common schools—the moral and religious culture and instruction of the young."

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

During the spring and autumn of 1846, Institutes were held in the counties of Cheshire and Hillsborough, which excited much interest, and were attended with very beneficial results. In June of the same year the

legislature provided that "any town in the State, at a legal meeting for the purpose, may raise, in addition to the amount required to be raised therein for the support of common schools, a sum not exceeding five per cent. of such amount, to be applied to the support of a Teachers' Institute within the limits of the county in which said town is situated." Under this provision several institutes have already been held, which have continued in session during two weeks. Prof Haddock, in his Report as Commissioner of Common Schools, for 1847, has the following remarks.

"The only method of meeting it [the evil of a want of professional qualifications in the teachers of the State] even partially appears to me to have been devised in the Teacher's Institute. This is a short school for the special training of teachers, kept usually from three to four weeks in spring and autumn, preparatory to the summer and winter schools. An accomplished master of the art of teaching is employed; persons proposing to teach during the following season are invited to meet at some convenient place within the county; a model school is collected from the vicinity; and the theory of school-keeping is discussed in its various branches, and exemplified by the future teachers in rotation. In this way the best lights of experience are thrown upon the subject, and any peculiar felicity of manner, that may happen to be possessed by one, is communicated to the rest. During the continuance of the Institute, occasional lectures are delivered by distinguished educationists; and at the close a public examination is had, with a view to exhibit the results to the community around. The success of the experiment thus far more than answers the most sanguine hopes of its friends; and I am induced to think, from all accounts, that no single means adopted by us for the supply of competent teachers, promises so much. Institutes have been in active and efficient operation the last year in Cheshire and Hillsborough counties; and preliminary measures have been adopted for introducing them into Rockingham and Strafford. I shall be greatly disappointed, if the Act of the last Legislature, authorizing the towns to raise a small sum, annually, for the support of one Institute in each county, does not prove one of the most useful and satisfactory measures, at any time adopted for the improvement of the Common Schools. I trust that the experience of the southern counties will encourage all the counties of the State to take early measures for securing to themselves the same advantages. The expense is trifling; and the benefits incalculable. A single thought suggested to a reflecting teacher, may change his whole style of discipline. There are, often, abundant information and excellent dispositions in persons, who, for want of an hour's instruction, hardly know how to open and organize a school. Particular individuals, by accident, or some happy thought, have acquired a tact in teaching or governing, which instead of being confined to themselves, may by means of these institutions for mutual improvement, be communicated to a numerous circle. Upon subjects on which we have any thing to learn, the true way is to agitate, discuss, compare ideas, consult; it is impossible but that bright minds earnestly bent on improvement, will be instructed

and stimulated by mutual intercourse. A public sentiment begins to be formed on the subject; the standard of merit is raised: a spirit of professional ambition is excited; and it cannot be long before the best results will be realized in an increasing popular intelligence and an elevated general morality.

MAINE.

The Board of Education in their first Annual Report for 1847, thus introduces the subject to the attention of the Legislature.

"The subject of Teachers' Institutes has received the particular and thorough examination of the Board, and we are unanimous in the opinion that their immediate establishment is indispensable to the beginning of the reform which the law under which we act contemplates. The details of the plan for these Institutes, their object and necessity, are fully set forth in the report of the Secretary. We shall not further dwell upon the subject, than most earnestly to recommend them to the patronage of the legislature. The appropriation asked, is two hundred dollars for each county, and the legislature may be assured that the amount appropriated will be expended with the strictest economy. The money necessary for their support may very properly be taken from the income of the permanent school fund."

The Secretary of the Board, Hon. W. G. Crosby, in his Report, urges the subject at some length.

"It is made a part of the duty of this Board, directly, or through the agency of the Secretary, to inquire and report upon the advantages of Normal Schools, or schools for the education of teachers. A system, which provides the means for qualifying the individuals composing any one of the various classes or occupations in society for the intelligent and faithful performance of their duties, cannot be otherwise than advantageous to the individual, and the community at large. Of this character is the Normal School. Entertaining, as I do, the highest regard for this institution, and believing it to be the most efficient method ever adopted for training and qualifying a class of teachers to become the educators of the hearts and intellects of the young, yet I cannot refrain from expressing my conviction, that the time for the establishment of such an institution in this State, at the public expense, has not yet arrived; and, should a wise course of legislation be adopted and pursued, and the inducement of an adequate compensation be afforded to those already qualified, or who may hereafter qualify themselves, for the business of teaching, the necessity for such an institution may never exist. The demand now is for an *immediate* supply of competent teachers in our public schools, and it is too urgent to admit of delay. The questions which press themselves upon our consideration are, how shall that demand be answered? and from what source shall that supply come? There are now in our State from four to five thousand, who are employed, during some portion of each year, as teachers. In that number are to be found many eminently qualified for the calling, by education and experience; and a much larger

number, of the right material, and possessed of the right spirit, whose deficiencies are the consequence, not of a lack of native talent, or a good education as men and women, but of inexperience, and ignorance of what may with propriety be styled the *art of teaching*. It is from this source that the supply of teachers must come, to meet and answer the immediate demand; and the instrumentality, by which they are to be fitted and qualified to discharge the duties of their calling, acceptably to their employers and profitably to the children and youth entrusted to their care, is the *Teachers' Institute*.

The earliest account of these institutes which I have been able to obtain, goes back as far as 1839, when a 'teachers' class' was convened, at Hartford, by the procurement of Henry Barnard, Esq., a distinguished friend of the cause of popular education, and now Commissioner of Public Schools in the State of Rhode Island. The object of that convention was, to adopt his language, 'to show the practicability of making some provision for the better qualification of common school teachers, by giving them an opportunity to revise and extend their knowledge of the studies usually pursued in district schools, and of the best methods of school arrangement, instruction, and government, under the recitations and lectures of experienced and well-known teachers and educators.' Teachers' Institutes, as now organized and conducted, are regarded as having their origin in the State of New York, in the year 1843. Since that time, they have been introduced into the States of Massachusetts, Vermont, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Michigan; and such has been the success attending them, that, in each of the states enumerated, their number has been annually increasing. They are usually convened in spring or autumn, before, and as preparatory to, the summer and winter schools, at such point in each county as will afford the greatest facilities for the attendance of teachers, and continue for such length of time as circumstances, and the wishes of those present, may require. The institutes heretofore held, have varied in length from one to six weeks. In Massachusetts, where provision is made by law for their support, they are not organized for a less term than ten days, but the limit to which they may extend is not fixed,—this depending upon the interest manifested, the wishes and convenience of those in attendance. Sessions of the institute are called by the Board of Education, or by their Secretary, or by such person as they may designate, and, during their continuance, are under the direction of the person appointed, who stands in the same relation to the institute in which a teacher stands to his school. Skillful and experienced teachers are employed, and, under their supervision, the members of the institute are formed into classes, and go through the drill and routine of the school-room. Instruction is given in the general principles of school government, of discipline, classification, and the most approved methods of teaching in the various branches usually taught in public schools. In fact, the institute is, for the time being, a model school, where the young teachers are presented with the living illustration of a school as it should be,—of what each one should endeavor to make his own,—and affords to them a practical exemplification of the principles of government and teaching. It is theory reduced to practice. The exercises during the day are interspersed with discussions, and the evenings devoted to lectures upon subjects connected

with education. The expenses attending an institute consist chiefly of the compensation paid to the teachers who attend for the purpose of giving instruction, for room rent, fuel, and lights: the lectures are usually gratuitous. In Massachusetts, these expenses are defrayed by the state, the governor being authorized to draw for the same immediately upon the treasurer, but not to an amount exceeding two hundred dollars for the expenses of any one institute. In New Hampshire, by virtue of an act passed at the last session of its legislature, authority is given to the several towns throughout the state, to raise, at a legal meeting for that purpose, in addition to the amount required to be raised for the support of common schools, a sum not exceeding five per cent. of such amount, to be applied to the support of a teachers' institute within the limits of the county in which the towns raising the money are situated. Of the practical operation of that provision I am not yet apprised; but the uncertainty attending this mode of raising the necessary funds, the strong probability that, under its operation, the expenses would be very unequally borne by different towns, render the plan, to my mind, somewhat objectionable. The existence or duration of so powerful an agency for the improvement of the educational character of teachers of our public schools, as the teachers' institute, should not be left to chance or caprice. The success which has hitherto attended these associations has more than realized the most ardent expectations of their friends and founders. Testimonials to this point are abundant. The committee on teachers' institutes, in the New York state school convention, held in 1845, commended the establishment of them in the strongest terms, and spoke of them as 'having, during the preceding year, enlightened the head and increased the zeal of more than two thousand teachers in the state.' Of the results attending an institute held in Cheshire county, New Hampshire, it is said, 'that those teachers who attended the institute have almost universally been successful in their schools, and those who had taught before have had greater success since than previously. They are evidently more systematic and thorough in their instructions; they manifest a deeper interest in their work. The interest already awakened in its behalf is such, that no fears are entertained that it will not be sustained,—at least until something better shall be substituted.' During the past year, six institutes were held in Massachusetts, under the patronage and endowment of the state; of all of which, the secretary of the board of education of that commonwealth says, in his last annual report, 'that the collective expressions of opinion made by the members at the close of their several meetings, and the private declarations of those whom I have since seen or heard from, give evidence of highly satisfactory results.' Of the same encouraging character is all the information which I have been able to obtain, in relation to the practical effect of teachers' institutes.

In view, then, of the want, so widely felt, of teachers for our public schools more thoroughly indoctrinated in the art of teaching,—of the necessity of prompt, immediate action,—and of the beneficial results which, I doubt not, would follow from the establishment of teachers' institutes in the several counties throughout the state, I would suggest to this board the expediency and propriety of memorializing the legislature in their behalf. If there is, in reality, a disposition to carry on the great enter-

prise which has just been commenced, to a successful issue,—if the state would do honor to itself, and justice to the children of the people,—that memorial cannot fail to meet with a favorable reception."

These views and facts had their due weight with the Legislature, and the sum of twenty-six hundred dollars was appropriated for the encouragement of Teachers' Institutes. Under this appropriation an institute has been held in every county of the state, "several of which have been very large, and all of them very spirited and useful."

MICHIGAN.

The first Teachers' Institute in Michigan was held at Jackson, in the autumn of 1846, under the auspices of the Jackson County Teachers' Association, and the active exertions of M. M. Baldwin, Esq. It had the benefit of Mr. Salem Town's instruction, and included seventy-nine teachers. A second session was held at Spring Arbor in April, 1847, which numbered one hundred and ninety-three members. At the close of the session in April the following resolution, among others, was adopted.

Resolved, That we believe TEACHERS' INSTITUTES to be an efficient means of promoting the improvement of Teachers, and creating an additional interest in their employment; and believe that their introduction into every part of the State would have a direct tendency to elevate Common Schools.

The Superintendent of Public Instruction (Hon. Ira Mayhew) thus speaks on the subject:

"The nature of Teachers' Institutes and the advantages that would result from their general introduction and judicious management—advantages not only to teachers, but to citizens generally—are better understood, and there is beginning to be a hungering and thirsting for their establishment throughout the State. This anxiety is not limited to teachers. If it were, my hopes and my expectations would be greatly abridged. Persons who have children to educate in common schools, and many of the most influential citizens of the several counties, are frequently among those that feel a deep and lively interest in this matter.

It should be generally understood that the main design of Teachers' Institutes is to impart professional instruction; to consider and discuss the best means of interesting and governing children in our primary schools, and the most approved and successful methods of imparting instruction in the several branches of study ordinarily pursued therein.

VERMONT.

The State Superintendent, (now Governor Eaton,) thus introduces the agency of Teachers' Institutes among the means of school improvement, in his Annual Report to the Legislature in October, 1846.

"Normal Schools are designed to be the models or patterns of a well conducted and thoroughly instructed school, in which teachers are themselves the pupils, and in which they are not only trained to the best modes of instruction and management of schools, but also receive thorough fundamental instruction and acquire that knowledge, which they are at the same time learning the most efficient and successful method of imparting. The purposes of Teachers' Institutes, Drills, &c., is to instruct the teacher in regard to the proper manner of ordering the general arrangements of the school, of managing and disciplining it, of conducting its studies, of communicating instruction in regard to other matters pertaining to the art of teaching, as distinct from that fundamental knowledge, which all would suppose to be necessary by way of preparation for such a course of instruction—and which must be previously acquired by the teacher either in the best of our common schools or in our higher institutions. No acquaintance with the best and most approved modes of teaching can supply a deficiency here. And this caution may be the more necessary, from the fact that Institutes have been already spoken of in terms of commendation. While Normal Schools are designed to cover the whole ground of teaching, and training for the employment of teaching, Institutes propose only to attain the latter purpose, trusting to the schools already in operation and within our reach, to accomplish the former purpose, so far as they can do it. There can be no doubt, that Normal Schools are serving as a most efficient means of forming thoroughly qualified teachers, especially in the States of New York and Massachusetts. And were it not that these institutions, being attended with greater expense, must be regarded as at present beyond our reach, the Superintendent would warmly urge their immediate establishment in this State. But for the time being, it is believed that reliance must and may be placed upon the conjoined agency of Institutes and our ordinary means of instruction. Through these, it is believed, we may secure a very great elevation of the ordinary standard of qualification."

During the past autumn several well attended Institutes have been held in different parts of the State. We have before us a Catalogue of "the Chittenden County Teachers' Institute," held at Essex in October. There were sixty-two teachers present. Resolutions were passed declaring "Teachers' Institutes to be one of the best means by which public interest can be awakened to the importance of Common School education," and recommending their establishment in every county.

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES IN RHODE ISLAND.

Rhode-Island was the first state to recognize this new agency in her school system, by making it the duty of the Commissioner of public schools in the school law of 1845, to establish Teachers' Institutes „ where teachers and such as propose to teach may become acquainted with the most approved and successful method, of arranging the studies and conducting the discipline and instruction of public schools." An account of the Institute held in 1845, was published in this Journal (Extra) Vol. I p. 8.

The preliminary arrangements for holding Teachers' Institutes agreeably to the plan pursued in 1845, in different parts of the State in the months of October and November were made by the Commissioner of the Public Schools, but his health being such as to require a temporary suspension of his official labors, it was thought advisable to hold but one Institute at Providence. This was undertaken by the Executive Committee, with the expectation that the Commissioner would be able to be present during the session, but his indisposition and other engagements out of the State, prevented his return to Providence in season.

Teachers' Institute at Providence in 1846.

Agreeably to an invitation from the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction, teachers from various parts of the State met in the vestry of the First Baptist Church on Monday evening, Nov. 9th. Mr. Kingsbury, President of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction, called the meeting to order, and, after prayer by the Rev. Mr. Granger, briefly stated the objects of the meeting, and explained the difference between a Teachers' Institute and the Institute of Instruction. In the absence of Mr. Giddings, the Secretary, Messrs. S. Patterson and A. A. Meader were appointed Secretaries *pro tem.*, and Messrs. Wilson, Horton, Jenks Mowry, Rich, and Steere, were appointed a committee of arrangements. Mr. Kingsbury then gave a lecture upon causes of failure in teaching ; and after remarks by Mr. Bishop, the Institute adjourned.

Tuesday morning, Dr. Alcott of Mass. delivered a lecture on Physiology and the means of preserving health. Mr. A. D. Wright of New York gave a practical exercise in the elementary sounds of the language. In the afternoon, Mr. A. N. Johnson of Boston illustrated the best mode of teaching the elements of vocal music. In the evening, Mr. Bulkley of Albany illustrated his mode of analyzing words and teaching their definitions, by the use of McElligott's Manual ; after which, the subject of neatness in and about the school-house was discussed by Messrs. Wilson, Farnum, Bishop, and Weeks. It was shown by facts and a conclusive course of reasoning, that cleanliness has an important bearing upon the health and morals of children.

Wednesday morning, Mr. Vaill of New York explained the use of his globe, and Dr. Alcott continued his remarks upon the best mode of ventilating and warming school-rooms. In the afternoon, Mr. Wright gave an exercise in reading, and Mr. Goodenow explained the merits of his grammer. In the evening, Mr. Northend of Salem gave a lecture on the essential qualifications of teachers ; after which the subject of school government was discussed by Messrs. Jenks Mowry, Thompson, Baker, Bishop, Whitney, W. A. Alcott, and A. B. Alcott.

Thursday morning, Mr. S. S. Green of Boston explained his mode of teaching grammar by the construction and analysis of sentences. Mr. White of Providence gave a lesson in the rudiments of vocal music, and Mr. Thompson of New Haven explained his method of illustrating the first principles of arithmetic. In the afternoon, Mr. Green gave a practical exercise in grammar, Mr. Thompson in arithmetic, and Mr. Wright in the utterance of the elementary sounds. In the evening, Mr. Baker gave an exercise in reading and oral arithmetic. Messrs Patterson, Harriman, Williard, Horton, and Weeks

were appointed a committee on resolutions. The subject of school government was resumed and discussed by Messrs. Jenks Mowry, Keep, Hall, Farnum, Tillinghast, and Baker. The difficulty and importance of good government in school was conceded by all the speakers. The teacher must by some means induce good order. What means shall he employ? was the question; and the general reply was, that he must adapt his means in some degree to the condition of the school and the character of the children. A form of government that is successful in one country will not necessarily succeed in another, and means that are effectual in one school will not necessarily be effectual in another. Mild measures are the best in the school as in the family, when they will accomplish the object. Kindness, decision, firmness and energy of purpose are indispensably requisite to produce good government every where. Physical force lies back to enforce all human laws, and should in school, as everywhere, be used with *discretion*. That sickly sentimentality and mistaken kindness, which would shrink from exercising a wholesome restraint upon children, should be discountenanced as subversive of all order and progress. The pupils should, as far as possible, be induced to co operate with the teacher in maintaining good government. Remarks were made upon the best modes of teaching, by Messrs. Baker, Wilson, Jenks Mowry, Weeks, Cook, Bishop, Angell, Thompson, and William A. Alcott.

Friday morning, Mr. Bulkley gave a practical exercise in etymology by prefixes and suffixes, Mr. Thompson in written arithmetic, and Mr. White in vocal music. Mr. Buckley explained his method of teaching Wilson's History of the United States, and also the use of the historical chart. Some measures to be used by the teachers to secure the co-operation of their pupils were suggested and discussed by Messrs. Keep, Perry, Farnum, Harkness, Bulkley, and Winsor. In the afternoon, the subject of the morning discussion was resumed, and discussed by Messrs. Farnum, Weeks, Harkness, and Sisson. Mr. Tillinghast, Principal of the Bridgewater Normal School, read a lecture on teaching the elementary principles of arithmetic. Mr. Greene, a pupil of Mr. Tillinghast, gave a practical exercise in the vowel sounds. Mr. Bishop urged teachers to be faithful and conscientious in the discharge of their respective duties. In the evening, Mr. Greene, assistant in the Bridgewater Normal School, gave a practical excercise in enunciation.—Mr. Tillinghast further explained his mode of teaching the elementary principles of arithmetic. Mr. Baker illustrated the usefulness of diagrams, geometrical solids, and other visible illustrations in teaching different studies. A discussion followed on the means of elevating our common schools, in which Messrs. Caswell, Osgood, Whitney, Baker, Sisson, Winsor, Keep, and Weeks, participated.

Saturday morning, Mr. Thompson conducted an exercise in arithmetic, and Mr. C. A. Greene in enunciation. Remarks were made on school improvements by Messrs. Farnum, Aldrich, Baker, Angell, and Perry. Deacon Dexter, one of the oldest teachers in the State, wished the injunctions of the Bible to be remembered, and children to be instructed to respect their superiors in virtue and station, and "be subject unto the higher powers." That clause of the State law, which provides for the establishment of one permanent Normal School, was suggested as pointing to an important means of elevating our common schools.

The report of the committee on resolutions was read and adopted as follows:

Having, as we trust, a just appreciation of the privileges, which we as teachers of youth have enjoyed, and of the advantages which we have derived from the numerous, appropriate and happily diversified exercises of the Institute, now about to close, therefore,

1. *Resolved*, That the cordial thanks of this body are due to the *Rhode Island Institute of Instruction* for taking measures to hold this *Teachers' Institute*, and defray the consequent expenses. Nor would we forget in this connection, to tender our sincere acknowledgments to those individuals who have so generously furnished the means to carry out this Institute.

2. *Resolved*, That special acknowledgements are due to Messrs. *Kingsbury* and *Bishop*, for the able and profitable manner in which they have presided over our meetings and directed the various exercises of the Institute.

3. *Resolved*, That we feel under great obligations, to those gentlemen who have appeared before us as instructors and lecturers, for their valuable instructions and clear and interesting illustrations.

4. *Resolved*, That our thanks are due to the Trustees of the First Baptist Society for the use of their vestry, and to the Rev. Mr. Granger, for suspending his usual Wednesday evening service for the accommodation of the Institute.

5. *Resolved*, That we tender our thanks to the citizens of Providence for the interest they have manifested in the various ways for the object of our meetings, and particularly to those individuals who have opened to us their doors and extended their hospitalities.

It was further voted that:—

Whereas, the improvement of Public Schools in this State is a subject of vital importance to the present and coming generations, therefore :

1. *Resolved*, That while we acknowledge the deep sense of obligation resting upon us, as teachers and educators, and are at times ready to exclaim " who is sufficient for these things ;" we are yet encouraged by the improved state of public sentiment, to renew our efforts and redouble our exertions to a more full discharge of our duties.

2. *Resolved*, That since we necessarily teach by *example* as well as by precept, we ought to take special care that our example be worthy of the imitation of our pupils, and our deportment and characters such, as to improve and elevate those who come within the sphere of our influence.

3. *Resolved*, That in our opinion, it is incumbent upon every teacher to devote his time and strength to the duties of his profession, avoiding such amusements and pursuits as tend to distract his mind and impair his energies.

4. *Resolved*, That a periodical devoted to the cause of education is needed in our State, and if such a periodical be hereafter established, we pledge ourselves to use our united and persevering efforts to extend its circulation and promote its usefulness.

5. *Resolved*,. That for our own improvement and the consequent improvement of the schools under our charge, we recommend the formation of teachers' associations in the different towns and counties throughout the State.

Mr Kingsbury in a brief manner cautioned teachers against hasty changes in their modes of instruction and discipline. They should receive hints and suggestions from every source, and decide for themselves upon the practicability of every proposed plan of action. They must exercise *common sense*, and be sure to work in these ways in which they can accomplish the greatest amount of good. David preferred the simple sling, whose use he understood, to the heavy armor of Saul, which he had never learned to wield.

Mr. K. apologized for the deficiencies or irregularities in respect to the arrangement of the exercises or the acommodation of teachers. The unavoidable absence of Messrs. Barnard and Russell, who were expected, the one to superintend the exercises of the Institute, and the other to instruct in elocution, was regretted by all. Both were detained by severe indisposition. Between two and three hundred teachers were present to participate in the exercises.

Mr. Bishop gave a few words of explanation ; and Prof. Thompson thanked the Institute for the courtesy extended towards him. The Rev. Mr. Osgood assured the teachers that these meetings had been a source of pleasure and profit to the citizens of Providence.

It was Voted, That the editors and conductors of newspapers in the State, be requested to publish the proceedings of this Institute in their respective papers.

Also Voted, That Mr. Perry, of Providence, be a committee to carry the above into effect.

After prayer by the Rev. Mr. Osgood, and singing Old Hundred, the Institue adjourned sine die.

SYLVSTER PATTERSON, A. A. MEADER, } Secretaries pro. tem.

The Institute at Providence, as was anticipated, created a good degree of interest not only among the teachers present, but in the community. The public schools of the city were in session during the week, and many teachers from the country availed themselves of this opportunity to witness the organization, classification, and methods of government and instruction pursued therein.

Arrangements have been made by the school committee of Providence, to hold an Institute for the teachers of the city schools during the vacation in February 1848.

TEACHERS' MEETINGS AND ASSOCIATIONS.

In continuation of the work begun by Teachers' Institutes, we have found that meetings of the teachers of one or more towns, for purposes of mutual improvement in their profession, and for the advancement of education generally, have proved highly interesting and useful. In some instances these meetings have been held under a town or county organization of the teachers, and in others simply under an appointment of the Commissioner, or by arrangement of a few public spirited individuals.

In addition to the Institutes before described, a meeting of the teachers of Washington county was held at Westerly, under the instruction of Mr. Wells and Mr. Russell; at Woonsocket, of the teachers of Cumberland, Smithfield, and North Providence, under the instructions of Mr. Fowle; and at Pascoag for the teachers of Burrillville and Glocester, under the instruction of Mr. Fowle. The sessions of the first and last continued through two days and three evenings, and the second through one day. Each meeting was attended by about thirty teachers.

Arrangements have already been made for holding at least sixty meetings of teachers, in different parts of the State, at all of which the Commissioner will be present, or at least secure the attendance of some of the older and more experienced teachers of the State.

TOPICS FOR CONSIDERATION AT TEACHERS' MEETINGS.

The daily preparation which the teacher should bring to the school-room.
The circumstances which make a teacher happy in school.
The requsites of success in teaching.
Causes of failure in teaching.
The course to be pursued in organizing a school.
The order of exercises or programme of recitations.
The policy of promulgating a code of rules for the government of a school.
The keeping of registers of attendance and progress.
The duties of the teacher to the parents of the children and to school-officers.
The opening and closing exercises of a school.
Moral and religious instruction and influence generally.
The best use of the Bible or Testament in school.
Modes of promoting a love of truth, honesty, benevolence, and other virtues, among children.
Modes of promoting obedience to parents, respectful demeanor to elders, and general submission to authority.
Modes of securing cleanliness of person and neatness of dress, respect for the school-room, courtesy of tone and language to companions, and gentleness of manners.
Modes of preserving the school-house, and appurtenances from injury and defacement.
Length and frequency of recess.
The games, and modes of exercise and recreation to be encouraged during the recess, and at intermission.
Modes of preventing tardiness, and securing the regular attendance of children at school.
The government of a school generally.
The use and abuse of corporeal punishment.
The establishment of the teachers' authority in the school.
Manner of treating stubborn and refractory children, and the policy of dismissing the same from school.
Prizes and rewards.
The use and abuse of emulation.
Modes of interesting and bringing forward dull, or backward scholars.
Modes of preventing whispering, and communication between scholars in school.
Manner of conducting recitations generally.
How to prevent or detect imperfect lessons.
Methods of teaching generally—such as the monitorial, the interrogative, the simultaneous, the elliptical, the synthetical, the analytical, &c. with illustrations.

Methods of teaching the several studies usually introduced into public schools—such as—

The use, and nature, and formation of numbers.

Mental Arithmetic.

Written Arithmetic.

Spelling.

Reading.

Grammar—including conversation, composition, analysis of sentences, parsing, &c.

Geography—including map-drawing, use of outline maps, atlas, globes, &c.

Drawing—with special reference to the employment of young children, and as preliminary to penmanship.

Penmanship.

Vocal music.

Physiology—so far at least as the health of children and teacher in the school-room is concerned.

The apparatus and means of visible illustration, used in the schools of different grades.

The development and cultivation of observation, attention, memory, association, conception, imagination, &c.

Modes of inspiring scholars with enthusiam in study, and cultivating habits of self-reliance.

Lessons, on real objects, and the practical pursuits of life.

Topics and times for introducing oral instruction, and use the of lectures generally.

Manner of imparting collateral and incidental knowledge.

The formation of museums and collections of plants, minerals, &c.

Exchange of specimens of writing, map and other drawings.

School examinations generally.

How far committees should conduct the examination.

Mode of conducting an examination by written questions and answers.

School celebrations, and excursions of the school, or a portion of the scholars, to objects of interest in the neighborhood.

Length and frequency of vacations.

Books and periodicals on education, schools and school systems.

The private studies of a teacher.

The visiting of each other's schools.

Exchange of specimens of penmanship, map and other drawings, minerals, plants, &c between the different schools of a town, or of different towns.

The peculiar difficulties and encouragements of each teacher, in respect to school-house, attendance, supply of books, apparatus, parental interest and co-operation, support by committees, &c. &c.

The practicability of organizing an association of the mothers and females generally of a district or town, to visit schools, or of doing so without any special organization.

EDUCATIONAL PERIODICALS.

The following list includes all the Educational Journals which are received regularly or irregularly at this office.

THE COMMON SCHOOL JOURNAL, edited by Horace Mann, Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education, is published semi-monthly by William B. Fowle, No. 138½ Washington street, Boston. Price one dollar a year, payable in advance.

The *tenth volume* commences in January, 1848.

THE DISTRICT SCHOOL JOURNAL OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK, edited by Rev. William H. Campbell, D. D., is published monthly in Albany, [*John R. Humphrey, Agent,*] at fifty cents a year, payable in advance.

The *ninth volume* commences in April, 1848.

THE TEACHERS' ADVOCATE AND JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, edited by Joseph M'Keen, and James N. McElliott, is published semi-monthly at No. 5, Beekman street, New York, at one dollar a year.

THE OHIO SCHOOL JOURNAL, edited by Asa D. Lord, is published at Columbus, monthly, at fifty cents a year, payable in advance.

The *third volume* commences in January, 1848.

Common School Advocate, edited by H. F. West, is published semi-monthly at Indianapolis, Indiana, at one dollar a year, payable in advance.
The *first* volume commenced in October, 1846.

The Connecticut School Manual, edited by Rev. Merrill Richardson, is published by Case, Tiffany & Co., Hartford. Price fifty cents a year, payable in advance.

The School Friend, published monthly by W. B. Smith, & Co., No. 58 Main street, Cincinnati, Ohio, and sent *free of charge* to every teacher, school officer, or clergyman in the West and South who wishes it. Application should be post-paid.

The Massachusetts Teacher, is the title of a new Journal to be issued on the first of January, and published semi-monthly, under the editorial charge of a committee appointed by the Massachusetts Teachers' Association, at one dollar a year, payable in advance.

PUBLISHER'S NOTICE.

The Annual Report of the Commissioner of Public Schools for 1847, having been submitted orally to the General Assembly, at the October session, will not be printed. The facts embraced in it, will be published with the next Report, in which Mr. Barnard proposes to give the history and condition of the public schools of each town in the State, with such suggestions for their improvement as his knowledge of the schools may enable him to make. He will commence the publication of the documents referred to in his forth-coming Report, including the history of public schools in the several towns, in the January number of the *third volume of the Journal of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction.*

The *second volume* of the *Journal of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction*, bound in half sheep to correspond with the bound copies of Volume I, will be ready by the middle of January, for subscribers who have not received the numbers as they have been issued from time to time. Price of the volume to subscribers $1 10 cents per copy bound; and to non-subscribers $1 25.

A supply of Volume I, in half sheep binding, on hand for sale at $1 00 per copy. The two volumes will be furnished for $2 00.

VOLUME III.

The subscriber will publish a *third volume of the Journal of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction*, under the editorial charge of Henry Barnard, Commissioner of Public Schools.

The first number will be issued in January, 1848, and will be published on the 1st and 15th of each month, or on such days as may suit the official engagements of the Editor, until the volume is completed.

The several numbers will not contain an equal quantity of matter, but the volume when complete will embrace at least four hundred pages.

The price of the volume will be *one* dollar for a single copy; *five* dollars for six copies, and *ten* dollars for thirteen copies.

To every person who will forward ten dollars in subscription to Volume III, a bound copy of Volume II, will be given.

All subscriptions must be paid on the reception of the first number.

CHARLES BURNETT, Jr.

Providence, *December* 24, 1847.

CONDITION OF EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES,

AS EXHIBITED IN THE CENSUS OF 1840;

WITH A SKETCH OF THE SYSTEM OF COMMON SCHOOLS IN NEW YORK, AND CONNECTICUT

The following Table was prepared from the last census taken under the authority of the United States. Alarming and disgraceful as is the fact exhibited in this table, that there were in 1840, *five hundred and forty-five thousand whites, over twenty years of age, who could not read or write*, there are good reasons for believing that this number, great as it is, is far below the truth. First, because in several States, (Connecticut, Virginia and Kentucky,) where measures were before or have since been taken to get at the same fact, the number thus ascertained was larger than the number returned in the census. Second, because in several of the larger cities, where this class of persons are known generally to abound, and in some instances have been ascertained from actual investigations to abound, a very small number, and in others, none at all were returned as unable to read and write. Third, because in several instances scattered over six States where the accuracy of the census was tested by comparing its returns, in the particular now under consideration, with the records of courts, where persons applying for marriage licenses, or for naturalization papers, were obliged to sign their names or make their marks, the number of *marksmen* on record exceeded the number returned in the census, as being unable to read or write. Fourth, because, from the mode in which the census is taken, the number would most naturally fall below than above the truth, as individuals would not, unless the fact was notorious, *confess* to their own ignorance, or that of their families or friends. For these and other reasons, it is safe to say, that the number of whites over twenty years of age, who can neither read nor write—who cannot read the Bible, or the laws and constitutions of their State and country—who are denied all the advantages of science and literature embodied in books—who cannot read or write the vote they may cast into the ballot-box, if they are voters—exceeded, in 1840, *one million;* and that in 1844, the number has increased beyond the natural increase of our population, because the means of education have not within the last tan years, and do not now keep pace with our growth.

On this point, Mr. Mann thus comments in his Fourth of July Oration in 1842—

But without seeking any closer approximation to so unwelcome a truth, let us suppose, that we have but 700,000 free white persons in the United

States, over the age of twenty years, unable to read and write; and further, that only one quarter part of these are voters,—that is, we will deduct one half for females, and allow one half of the male moiety to be persons, either between twenty and twenty-one, or unnaturalized, (which, considering the States where the great mass of this ignorance belongs, is a most liberal allowance, because the number of ignorant immigrants is much less at the South than at the North) and we should then have 175,000 voters, unable to read and write.

No, Fellow-Citizens, we have not for years past, and we shall not have, at least for many years to come, an election of a President, or a Congress, or a Governor of a State,*—chosen under written constitutions, and to legislate and act under written constitutions, whose choice will not be dependent upon, and determinable by, legal voters, unable to read and write,—voters who do not know, and cannot know, whether they vote for King Log, or King Stork.

Let us look at another aspect of this case. The number of convicts at present in confinement, in the penitentiaries, and State prisons of the Union, is very nearly four thousand seven hundred and fifty; and the average duration of their imprisonment is about four years. The number under sentence *for crime*, in common jails, and houses of correction, is not less than the preceding, and the average length of their imprisonment is estimated at six months. Suppose that these culprits live, on an average, but eight years after their enlargement; and we have the appalling number of *eighty-five thousand five hundred* convicted criminals,—proved offenders against the laws of God and man,—almost universally adults,—at large, mingling in our society, and a very large portion of them competent to vote;—there being but three States in all this Union, where, by the constitution of the State, a conviction for felony, or any infamous offence, works a forfeiture of the elective franchise. Yes! *voters, good and true*,—for the wrong side, and to send you and me to perdition! And I do not believe there is one State in the Union, whose elections for Governor and other high officers, have not, sometimes, been so nearly a drawn game, that its quota of this felon host, its own battalion of sin, would not have been able to decide them, by what a politician would call, a very respectable majority!

The Hon. Henry A. Wise, in an address to his constituents of the Seventh Congressional District, dated Feb. 22, 1844, presents the results of the Census as to this section of Virginia, in the following manly spirit:

1st. The fact appears that of the whole number of free white persons, nearly *one-eighth*, cannot read and write.

2d. That of the whole number of free white persons over twenty years of age, more than *one-fourth* cannot read and write.

3d. That you have but seventeen academies and 101 primary schools, making 118 in all, when you ought to maintain at least 259, leaving a deficiency of 141 common schools.

4th. That you have but 2,628 scholars in your primary schools, and but 695 scholars in them at public charge; when you ought to have at least 7,448 children, at from seven to fifteen years of age, all at public charge in free schools, leaving 4,175 children of that age unaccounted for.

5th. That this number of 4,175 children of that age, presumed not sent to school, is nearly the precise number of adults, 4,514, who in this generation have grown up ignorant of letters.

6th. That this number of adults, 4,514, who cannot read and write, exceeds even the number of voters, 4,379, in the District.

* In the 22 elections for Governor of the State of New-York, since 1789, the average majority has been about 12,000; while, according to the census, the number of whites over 20 years of age, unable to read and write, is more than 44,000. In Pennsylvania, the majority for Governor has varied from 3,000 to 25,000. It has 33,940 whites, over 20 years of age, unable to read and write. In Ohio, the majority has varied from 2,000 (in 1828, and 1830) to 14,000, (last year.) Its number of adult whites unable to read and write, is 35,394.

In the presidential election of 1840, the majority for the successful candidate was 148,081—about 30,000 less than the calculated number of legal voters in the United States, unable to read or write.

TABLE ACCORDING TO THE CENSUS OF 1840.

Names of States.	Total of Pop.	White Pop.	No. of Whites between 5 & 15.	No. of inhabitants to sq. mile.	Students in Universities & Coll	Students in Academies & Grammar Schools.	Students in Primary and Common Schools.	White males oves 21 yr's who *cannot* read or write. Numb erof	Per cent. of	Rank according to Number of	Rank of States ac. to No. who *can* read & write
Maine,	501,793	500,438	131,864	15.3	266	8,477	164,477	3,241	1.38	24	4
New Hampshire,	284,574	284,036	66,611	29.9	433	5,749	83,632	942	.63	26	2
Massachusetts,	737,699	729,030	155,214	98.3	769	16,766	160,257	4,448	1.10	25	3
Rhode Island,	108,830	105,587	23,138	81.2	324	3,664	17,355	1,614	2.84	22	6
Connecticut,	309,978	301,856	67,543	65.0	832	4,865	65,739	526	.32	27	1
Vermont,	291,948	291,218	72,174	28.6	233	4,113	82,817	2,270	1.56	23	5
New York,	2,428,921	2,378,890	587,361	52.7	1,285	31,715	502,367	44,452	3.85	20	8
New Jersey,	373,306	351,588	89,283	44.8	443	3,027	52,583	6,385	3.82	21	7
Pennsylvania,	1,724,033	1,676,115	432,415	39.1	2,034	15,970	179,989	33,940	4.43	19	9
Delaware,	78,085	58,561	14,801	36.8	23	764	6,924	4,832	17.49	8	20
Maryland,	469,232	318,204	76,507	33.6	813	4,178	16,082	11,605	7.65	15	13
Virginia,	1,239,797	740,968	195,567	19.3	1,097	11,083	35,331	58,787	17.80	7	21
North Carolina,	753,419	484,870	133,351	15.7	158	4,398	14,937	56,609	27.00	1	27
South Carolina,	594,398	259,084	70,544	21.2	168	4,326	12,520	20,615	18.46	6	22
Georgia,	691,392	407,695	119,108	11.1	622	7,878	15,561	30,717	19.08	5	23
Alabama,	590,756	335,185	99,624	12.8	152	5,018	16,243	22,592	17.26	9	19
Mississippi,	375,651	179,074	49,886	8.1	454	2,553	8,236	8,360	11.32	14	14
Louisiana,	352,411	158,457	36,739	7.3	989	1,995	3,573	4,861	6.16	17	11
Tennessee,	829,210	640,627	191,650	20.7	492	5,539	25,090	58,531	23.51	3	25
Kentucky,	779,828	590,253	166,752	18.5	1,419	4,906	24,641	40,010	16.47	10	18
Ohio,	1,519,467	1,502,122	414,772	38.8	1,717	4,310	218,609	35,394	5.54	18	10
Indiana,	685,866	678,702	200,281	18.5	322	2,946	48,189	38,100	14.21	12	16
Illinois,	476,183	472,254	131,749	9.1	311	1,967	34,876	27,502	13.86	13	15
Missouri,	383,702	323,888	91,276	6.	495	1,926	16,788	19,457	14.78	11	17
Arkansas,	97,574	77,174	22,130	1.7		300	2,614	6,567	24.79	2	26
Michigan,	212,267	211,560	55,780	5.3	158	485	29,701	2,173	22.59	4	24
Dist. of Columbia,	43,712	30,657	7,099	437.4	224	1,389	851	1,033	6.88	16	12

Number of States, including District of Columbia,	27
Aggregate Population in do.	16,940,684
White Population, do.	14,473,208
Number of Whites over 5 and under 16,	3,703,294
" Students in Universities and Colleges,	16,233
" " in Academies and Grammar Schools,	163,387
" " in Primary and Common Schools,	1,840,782
" Whites over 20 years who cannot read or write,	545,998

7th. That, allowing twelve dollars to each scholar, you are now expending but $38,646 per annum for common schools, when you ought to expend the sum of $89,376, leaving a deficiency to $50,730 per annum.

8th. That this sum of $50,730 must be raised and expended in some way to make the rising generation more learned than their fathers.

The fact stares us frightfully in the face, that more than 4,000 poor children in our district are growing up in the night of ignorance. Most of these, doubtless, are female children, and the touching fact is presented that many mothers of the generation to follow will not be able to teach their sons and daughters how to read and write. We cannot mend the present generation of fathers and mothers, but we may provide intellectual food enough, and to spare, for the health and happiness of those who are to come after us.

COMMON SCHOOL SYSTEM OF NEW YORK.

[Abstract from a Lecture by Henry Barnard.]

The school system of New York is of recent origin. It dates back no farther than 1812. Prior to that year, and as early even as 1795, there was some legislation on the subject; but nothing effectually was done, till the appointment of a superintendent in June, 1812, whose duty it was made to assist in organizing the system in different parts of the State, to remove objections, answer inquiries, enlighten public sentiment, communicate to the Legislature the progress of the schools, and propose such modifications of the law as experience might from time to time show to be necessary. The duties of this office have been discharged successively by the ablest men of the State, Hawley, Yates, Flagg, Dix, Spencer and Young. The administration of each was marked by some new feature of improvement, till at this time, the system has attained a completeness of detail, a comprehensiveness of plan, and munificence of endowment, unsurpassed in this or any other country.

Organization.—In the organization of the school system, the political and territorial subdivisions are regarded. 1. The State as a whole is recognized, inasmuch as the school department is one of the most important of the government, having its distinct officers, bureau and funds. 2. The several counties (59) are charged with the responsibility of doing as much as the State does in the raising of means, and the appointment of an officer to superintend the application of the funds, and working of the schools in the towns and districts below. 3. The towns (about 900) have the power of incorporating smaller divisions of the territory into districts for school purposes, of raising additional means, of providing for local supervision, &c. 4. The districts (about 11,000) have power to build school houses, employ teachers, determine the length of the school, and the period of the year in which it shall be kept, and to raise funds for these purposes. 5. Every inhabitant (2,000,000 in all) who has any voice in public affairs, is recognized in the administratton and benefits of the system. 6. Every child, (over 600,000) is entitled, as a *right*, to all the privileges of a school, and all the advantages of a library of good books, brought by this system, within his reach, and inviting his participation.

Support.—The support of the common schools is derived from five sources. 1. The State appropriates from funds set apart for the purpose, a certain sum to be distributed among the several districts in each town, according to the number of children over four and under sixteen years of age. 2. The supervisors of the several counties are required to levy a tax upon each town equal to its distributive share of the State appropriation. 3. Each town can raise, by tax, a sum equal to both the preceding sums. 4. Each district must raise, by tax, the sum necessary to build, furnish and repair the school house, and must have maintained a school at least four months, under a teacher found qualified, before it can receive its share of public money. 5. Every parent and guardian of children who attend the school, must furnish books, contribute, according to the number of children each may send, to meet the expenses of the school, over and above what the public money pays. If the parent or guardian is poor, his children are not excluded from the school, but the bill for such children is assessed upon the whole district.

Supervision.—Beginning with the lowest series of officers, there is, 1st. The trustees of districts. They are elected by the legal voters of the district annually, for three years, one each year. The trustees look after the property of the district; see that the school house is repaired and furnished; fuel is supplied; a teacher employed; taxes collected, and a report of the condition of the school furnished annually to the district, and to the officer next above. 2. The Town Superintendent. The apportionment of the school money; the examination of teachers; removing such as are disqualified; visitation of the schools once, at least, during each term; fixing and describing the limits of school districts, and reporting the condition of all the schools in the town, and to the county superintendent, is entrusted to a single officer, elected by the legal voters of the town. This officer receives a small compensation for the time actually employed in the duties of his office. 3. County Superintendent. This officer is appointed by the board of county supervisors. It is made his duty to visit, as far as practicable, all the schools of the county; advise with trustees and teachers as to the books, studies and methods of instruction in the schools; the arrangements of school houses; to examine teachers and give certificates, which shall be good all over the county; to annul the certificates of such teachers as are not found qualified; to hold meetings in the different towns: to decide all cases of dispute which may arise under the school law, and to report annually to the superintendent on the condition and improvement of the schools in the county. This officer receives two dollars a day for his services while employed. 4. State Superintendent. He apportions the avails of the school fund among the several districts who have complied with the law, decides all litigation under the school law, on appeal from the county superintendent, disseminates blanks, and information as to the law, &c., to the officers below, and submits annually to the Legislature, a report exhibiting the state of the school fund, the condition of the schools, and plans for their improvement. This report is printed, and distributed widely over the State, for the guidance and information of the Legislature school officers, and the people.

Teachers.—No person can teach in common schools of the State, unless found qualified by the Town or County Superintendent. To enable young men or young women to qualify themselves to be teachers, a teacher's department was engrafted on an Academy, in each of the eight senatorial districts, in 1835, where it was intended that special instruction in the studies pursued in common schools, and in methods of teaching, should be given. In 1838, eight additional departments were created, and in 1841, the number was increased to twenty-three. In 1843, the appropriation to these departments, amounting annually to $4,800, was discontinued for the purpose of maturing a more efficient system for the education of teachers, and in 1844, the sum of $10,000 annually for five years, was voted almost unanimously "for the establishment and support of a Normal school, for the instruction and practice of teachers of common schools, in the science of education, and in the art of teaching, to be located in the city of Albany." The school is to be under the government and management of the Superintendent of Common Schools, and a Committee of the Regents of the University.

District Library.—The district library system had its origin in New York, and to the unwearied efforts and liberality of the late James Wadsworth, of Geneseo, is that State and the world largely indebted for its introduction, as a part of the regular means of public instruction. In 1838, fifty-three thousand dollars a year, for five years, (which at its expiration in 1843, was made perpetual,) were appropriated out of the avails of the United States Deposit Fund, and the same amount out of the county tax, making one hundred and six thousand dollars in all, for the purchase of books in the several school districts of the State. Already have upwards of one million of volumes been purchased, and placed in the several district libraries—thus opening the fountain of intellectual and moral life, the pleasures and advantages of science and literature and the arts, in every neighborhood. There is nothing in the annals of modern civilization more broadly beneficent than this. This feature of the New York school system carries forward the work of education beyond the school, and beyond the ordinary school age, into the family, the workshop, the counting room and the field, among the adults, the fathers and mothers of the community.

District School Journal.—To secure the dissemination of the annual Reports of the State and County Superintendents, of the law and of all decisions under it, and a knowledge of all desirable improvements in the arrangement, instruction and government of schools, as well as of the progress of popular education in other states and countries, a monthly journal, called the *New York District School Journal*, published at Albany, by Francis Dwight, the superintendent of the county of Albany, is sent by the State to every school district, and to all the officers connected with the administration of the system.

Such is a brief outline of the system of common schools now in successful operation in the "Empire State." The main feature, which has secured heretofore. and will continue to give to it practical efficiency and progressive improvement, is the simple, direct and intelligent supervision, which pervades every part of its organization. On this point, the State Superintendent, in his Annual Report, for 1844, remarks:

"We may reasonably congratulate ourselves upon the accession of a new order of things, in relation to the practical workings of our system. Through the medium of an efficient town and county supervision, we have succeeded not only in preparing the way for a corps of teachers thoroughly competent to communicate physical, intellectual and moral instruction—themselves enlightened and capable of enlightening their pupils—but also of demolishing the numerous barriers which have hitherto prevented all intercommunication between the several districts. An extended feeling of interest in the condition and progress of the school has been awakened; and in addition to the periodical inspection of the town and county superintendents, the trustees and inhabitants are now, in many portions of the State, beginning to visit the schools of their districts; striving to ascertain their advancement; to encourage the exertions of teachers and pupils, and to remove every obstacle resulting from their previous indifference. Incompetent teachers are beginning to find the avenues to the common school closed against them; and the demaud on the part of the districts for a higher grade of instructors, is creating a supply of enlightened educators, adequate to the task of advancing the youthful mind in its incipient efforts to acquire knowledge. The impetus thus communicated to the schools of one town and county is specially diffused to those of otners. Through frequent and periodical meetings of town and county associations of teachers and friends of education, the improvements adopted in any one district are made known to all; and the experience, observations and suggestions of each county superintendent, annually communicated, through their reports, to all. By these means, the stream of popular education, purified at its source and relieved from many of its former obstructions, is dispensing its invigorating waters over a very considerable portion of the State."

Annual Reports of the State and County Superintendents for 1844.—These reports make a volume of over 600 pages octavo. The following statistics are gathered from Col. Young's Report:

Population of the State in 1840,	
Number of counties,	59
" cities,	9
" towns,	835
" school districts,	10,875
" children between the age of 5 and 16,	685,354
" children of all ages attending the common schools in the course of the year,	667,782
" " in private schools,	64,105
Average length of schools in months,	8
Number of pupils who attended school through the year,	23,608
" " " eight months and upwards,	144,422
" " " two months and upwards,	478,029
" " " less than two months,	162,325
Whole number of male teachers in winter schools visited by county superintendents,	5,170
" female teachers,	635
" male " in summer schools,	1,024
" female " " " "	5,699

Average monthly compensation of male teachers in winter schools, exclusive of board,	$14 28
" " " in summer schools, do.	15 00
" " female do. in winter " do.	7 00
" " " summer " do.	6 00
Number of school houses inspected by the county superintendent,	9,368
" " found in good repair, - -	3,160
" " in bad repair, - -	3,319
" " furnished with suitable play-grounds,	1,541
" " not so furnished, - - -	7,313
" " with proper facilities for ventilation,	1,518
" " not so furnished, - - -	7,889
" " furnished with convenient seats and desks,	3,282
" " not so furnished, - - -	5,972
" " furnished with suitable out-buildings,	1,012
" " not so furnished, - - -	7,889
Productive capital of Common School Fund, - -	$1,975,093 15
Amount out of income of above fund, and the United States Deposit Fund, appropriated to Common Schools,	275,000 00
Amount raised in county and town tax, - -	385,727 41
Aggregate amount received by the school districts, - -	660,727 41
Amount raised by individuals on rate bills, - -	509,376 97
Aggregate amount applied to the payment of teachers' wages,	1,075,170 73

SYSTEM OF COMMON SCHOOLS IN CONNECTICUT.

[Abridged from Remarks on the History and Condition of the Laws relating to Common Schools in Connecticut, by Henry Barnard, 1841.]

Prior to 1650, there does not appear to have been any formal enactments concerning schools, or the education of children. The whole subject was left to parents and the magistrates of the several towns, after making some "allowance," out of the common means of the town towards paying the schoolmaster.

In 1650, the original Colony of Connecticut adopted "a body of laws," which Mr. Ludlow was requested to compile in 1646. In this Code, there are the following important enactments.

CHILDREN.

"Forasmuch as the good education of children is of singular behoof and benefit to any commonwealth; and whereas many parents, and masters are too indulgent and negligent of their duty in that kind:

It is therefore ordered by this court and the authority thereof, That the selectmen of every town in the several precincts and quarters where they dwell, shall have a vigilant eye over their brethren and neighbors, to see, first, that none of them shall suffer so much barbarism in any of their families, as not to endeavor to teach by themselves or others, their children and apprentices so much learning, as may enable them perfectly to read the English tongue, and knowledge of the capital laws, upon penalty of twenty shillings for each neglect therein; also, that all masters of families, do, once a week, at least, catechise their children and servants, in the grounds and principles of religion, and if any be unable to do so much, that then, at the least, they procure such children or apprentices to learn some short orthodox catechism, without book, that they may be able to answer to the questions that shall be propounded to them out of such catechisms by their parents or masters, or any of the selectmen, where they shall call them to a trial of what they have learned in this kind; and further, that all parents and masters do breed and bring up their children and apprentices in some honest lawful calling, labor or employment, either in husbandry or some other trade profitable for themselves and the commonwealth; if they will not nor can not train them up in learning, to fit them for higher employments; and if any of the selectmen, after admonition by them given to such masters of families, shall find them still negligent of their duty, in the particulars aforementioned, whereby children and servants become rude, stubborn and unruly,

the said selectmen, with the help of two magistrates, shall take such children or apprentices from them, and place them with some masters for years, boys till they come to twenty-one, and girls eighteen years of age complete, which will more strictly look unto and force them to submit unto government, according to the rules of this order, if by fair means and former instructions they will not be drawn unto it."

SCHOOLS.

"It being one chief project of that old deluder, Satan, to keep men from the knowledge of the scriptures, as in former times, keeping them in an unknown tongue, so in these latter times, by persuading them from the use of tongues, so that at least, the true sense and meaning of the original might be clouded with false glosses of saint seeming deceivers; and that learning may not be buried in the grave of our forefathers, in church and commonwealth, the Lord assisting our endeavors:

It is therefore ordered by this court and authority thereof, That every township within this jurisdiction, after the Lord hath increased them to the number of fifty householders, shall then forthwith appoint one within their town, to teach all such children, as shall resort to him, to write and read, whose wages shall be paid, either by the parents or masters of such children, or by the inhabitants in general, by way of supply, as the major part of those who order the prudentials of the town, shall appoint; provided, that those who send their children be not oppressed by paying much more than they can have them taught for, in other towns.

And it is further ordered, That where any town shall increase to the number of one hundred families or householders, they shall set up a grammar school, the masters thereof, being able to instruct youths, so far as they may be fitted for the university, and if any town neglect the performance hereof, above one year, then every such town shall pay five pounds per annum, to the next such school, till they shall perform this order.

The proposition concerning the maintenance of scholars at Cambridge, made by the commissioners, is confirmed.

And it is ordered, That two men shall be appointed in every town within this jurisdiction, who shall demand what every family will give, and the same to be gathered and brought into some room, in March; and this to continue yearly, as it shall be considered by the commissioners."

The following enactment constitutes the 13th section of the Capital Laws.

"If any child or children above sixteen years old and of sufficient understanding, shall curse or smite their natural father or mother, he or they shall be put to death; unless it can be sufficiently testified, that the parents have been very unchristianly negligent in the education of such children, or so provoke them by extreme and cruel correction that they have been forced thereunto to preserve themselves from death, or maiming."

In 1690, it was enacted as follows:

"This court observing that notwithstanding the former orders made for the education of children and servants, there are many persons unable to read the English tongue, and thereby unable to read the Holy Word of God, and the good laws of this colony, and it is hereby ordained, that all parents and masters shall cause their children and servants as they are capable, to read distintly the English tongue, and that the grand jury men in each town do once in the year, at least, visit each family they suspect to neglect this order, and satisfy themselves that all children under age, and servants in such suspected families, can read well the English tongue, or in good procedure to learn the same or not, and if they find any such children or servants not taught as their years are capable of, they shall return the names of the parents or masters of the said children to the next county court, when the said parents or masters shall be fined twenty shillings for each child or servant whose teaching is thus neglected according to this order."

In 1700 it was enacted that the inhabitants of each town in this colony, shall annually pay forty shillings for every thousand pounds in their respective country lists, and proportionably for lesser sums, towards the maintenance of the school master in the town where the same is levied; and in such towns

where the said levy shall not be sufficient for the maintenance of a suitable school master, and there is not any estate given by any charitable persons, or not sufficient together with the levy aforesaid for that use, in every such place a sufficient maintenance shall be made up, the one half thereof by the inhabitants of such town, and the other half thereof by the parents or masters of the children that go to school: unless any town agree otherwise. And when, and so often as the treasurer sends forth his warrants for levying the country rates, he shall also together with the country rate, assess the inhabitants of the several towns in this colony, the said sum of forty shillings upon every thousand pounds, and proportionably for lesser sums in their country lists, adding the same to their respective proportions of the country rate, and requiring the constables to levy the said assessments upon the inhabitants of each town within their several precincts, and to make payment thereof to the school master of the town (if any there be) where the same is levied; and in such town or towns where there is no school master provided according to law, to levy the said assessment, and to pay the same into the country treasury, as a fine imposed upon such town for their defect.

Always provided, That no town shall be fined for want of a school master for one month only in one year."

In 1714, "the civil authority and selectmen in every town" are constituted "visiters" to inspect the schools from time to time, and particularly each quarter of the year, at such time as they shall think proper, to inquire into the qualifications of the masters of such schools, and their diligence in attending to the services of the said schools, together with the proficiency of the children under their care; and they are hereby further required to give such directions as they shall find needful to render such schools most serviceable to the increase of that knowledge, civility and religion which is designed in meeting of them." They are further directed to report to the Assembly concerning any disorders or misapplication of the public money.

In 1795, the General Assembly authorized a committee of eight persons, of which John Treadwell was Chairman, to sell the lands belonging to Connecticut, west of Pennsylvania, which had been reserved by the State in its deed of cession to the United States in 1782, and appropriate the avails of the sale as a perpetual fund; the interest of which was to be divided annually among the several "Societies constituted or which might be constituted by law within certain limits" in their capacity as school societies, according to the list of polls and rateable estates in each. These sales, at forty-one cents the acre, amounted to $1,120,000.

Up to this time the law enforced the keeping of school in the towns or societies of more than seventy families, for eleven months of the year, and in those of less than seventy, for at least one half the year. It also enforced the keeping of a grammar school in the head town of the several counties. It imposed a tax, collectable with the other public taxes, for the support of schools, and limited its benefits to such towns or societies as kept their schools according to law. There are no official documents respecting the condition of the schools themselves, but from the testimony of men who were educated in the common schools prior to 1800, it appears that the course of instruction was limited to spelling, reading, writing, and the elements of arithmetic; but that these studies were attended to by all the people of the State; so that it was rare to find a native of Connecticut "who could not read the holy word of God and the good laws of the State." These schools such as they were, were the main reliance of the whole community for the above studies. There were no private schools, except to fit young men for college, or carry them forward in the higher branches of an English education. The books used were few and imperfect, but uniform. The supervision of the schools by the selectmen was considered a part of their town office, and by the clergy as a regular part of their parochial duty.

In 1798 the school societies were clothed with all the powers and duties heretofore exercised by towns and ecclesiastical societies respecting schools. The committee of the society were empowered to manage all the business affairs of the schools, and a board of visiters or overseers, consisting of not more than

nine persons of competent skill in letters, were to be appointed during the pleasure of the society, to examine and approve teachers, inspect the schools, and make all regulations for their management. A school of a higher order, for common benefit of such children of the society who had gone through the ordinary course of instruction in the common schools, might be established by a vote of two thirds of the legal voters present at any legal meeting. The studies prescribed for schools of this grade were reading, penmanship, and the rudiments of arithmetic, geography, English grammar, and composition, and the Latin and Greek languages, if desired; also in the first principles of religion and morality, and in general to form them to usefulness and happiness in the various relations of social life. This school was to be supported in part by the proportionate share of the school money of each district from which the scholars might come. The interest of the school fund was distributed to the several societies according to the list of polls and rateable estates who had kept their schools according to law. The law, however, no longer fixed any time during which the school should be kept, or any studies which should be taught, or prescribed the qualifications of teachers. This is the commencement of the "stand-still," if not the downward tendencies of the school system of Connecticut.

In 1810, at the May session, the Hon. James Hillhouse, then a member of the United States Senate, was appointed sole "Commissioner of the School Fund." Mr. Hillhouse immediately resigned his post in the Senate and entered on the duties of his new office. He found that the capital consisted chiefly of the debts due from the original purchasers of the Western Reserve, and the substituted securities which had been accepted in their stead. These securities had in the course of twenty years, by death, insolvency and otherwise, become involved in complicated difficulties. The interest had fallen greatly in arrears, and in many cases nearly equalled the principal. The debtors were dispersed in different States. Without a single litigated suit, or a dollar paid for counsel, he reduced the disordered management to an efficient system, disentangled its affairs from loose and embarrassed connections with personal securities and indebted estates, rendered it productive of a large, regular and increasing dividend, and converted its doubtful claims into well secured and solid capital. During the fifteen years of his administration, the annual dividend averaged $52,061 35, and the capital was augmented to $1,719,434 24.

In 1813 the proprietors of factories and manufacturing establishments were compelled to see that the children in their employ were taught to read, write, and cypher, and that due attention is paid to the preservation of their morals. To secure its observance, the selectmen and civil authority are constituted a board of visiters, to ascertain annually in the month of January, or some other time by them appointed, the facts in the case, and to report any neglect, to the next county court, which is authorized to impose such fine or forfeiture as may be deemed just.

In 1818, by the Constitution then adopted as the fundamental law of the State, the school fund is consecrated as a perpetual fund, "the interest of which shall be inviolably appropriated to the support and encouragement of the public schools throughout the State, and for the equal benefit of all the people thereof, and no law shall ever be made authorizing said fund to be diverted to any other use than the encouragement and support of common schools amongst the several school societies, as justice and equity shall require."

In 1825 Mr. Hillhouse resigned, and Mr. Beers was appointed Commissioner. During his administration, by judicious sales and management, the capital of the fund has been increased from $1,719,434 24 to $2,040,228 74, and the income from $72,418 30 to $113,366 25. The annual dividend has averaged $85,721 09 for sixteen years.

At an extra session of the Legislature in December 1836, the proportion of the surplus revenue belonging to the United States devolving to Connecticut, was deposited with the several towns, and one half of the annual interest of the same was appropriated "to the promotion of education in common schools, in such manner and proportion as each town might direct"—the other half can be in like manner appropriated at the option of the town. Under this act $764,670 61 have been deposited with the several towns.

In 1838 official information respecting the condition of the common schools was, for the first time, laid before the Legislature, in the form of returns from 104 out of 211 school societies in the State. As the particular attention of the General Assembly had been called to this subject by the Governor in his annual message, a select committee on the part of the House and Senate was raised, to whom these and other documents were referred. Among these documents were complete returns respecting every school society and district in one county, and letters from school visiters, teachers and friends of common schools in 105 towns, embracing nearly all which had made no returns to the Comptroller. In addition to this documentary and written information, one member of the committee had spent one month in visiting schools, and conferring with teachers and parents in three counties previous to the meeting of the Legislature; and several gentlemen interested in the improvement of schools were invited to present their views to the committee.

With these facts before them, the committee unanimously recommended a bill for a public act "to provide for the better supervision of common schools," which was passed into a law by the unanimous vote of the Senate, and with but a single dissenting voice in the House.

This act constituted the Governor, the Commissioner of the School Fund, and one person for each county in the State, a "Board of Commissioners of Common Schools," and aims to secure the better supervision of schools, by bringing their condition in the form of annual reports, first before the school societies by the local visiters, and afterwards before the Legislature and the State in the communications of the Board. To make these reports subserve the progress of the system, both the State Board and the local visiters are required to submit such plans of improvement as their observation and reflection may suggest. To enable the Board to ascertain the condition of the schools, and collect the material for sound legislative action, they are authorized to call for information from the proper local school authorities, and to appoint a Secretary, who shall devote his whole time, if required, under their direction, "to ascertain the condition, increase the interest, and promote the usefulness of the common schools."

In 1839 the Board submitted their First Annual Report to the Legislature, including a report from their Secretary, [Henry Barnard,] with minute statistical information respecting more than twelve hundred schools.

The following are some of the facts in the condition of the schools and of the public mind respecting them, as ascertained by the measures of the Board—

"That out of the 67,000 children between the ages of four and sixteen returned, not more than 50,000 attended the common schools in the winter of 1838–9, or more than 54,000 of all ages, and that the average daily attendance did not exceed 42,000; that there were in the State, 12,000 children in private schools at an expense of more than $200,000, which exceeded all that was expended on the education of the 54,000; and that 4,700 children of the proper school age were returned as in no school, public or private, and the whole number could not be less than 8000 in the State—

That previous to the act of 1838 requiring annual reports, there was but one town or school society which had made provision for a written report from school visiters, as to their doings, or the condition of the several schools;—

That it was difficult to find any one who could give information of the common schools out of his own district;—

That school meetings, both of school societies and schooldistricts, were thinly attended;—

That school officers were appointed at meetings, where, apart from the officers of the preceding year, there was not a quorum to do business;—

That the length of the school varied with the compensation of the teacher, which was governed not so much by his qualifications, as by the amount of public money accruing to the district;—

That there was not even a formal compliance with the law requiring teachers to be examined and approved, and schools to be visited twice during each season of schooling in regard to summer schools;—

That certificates were returned to the Comptroller's office, that the schools

had been kept in all respects according to law, by committees who had no personal or written knowledge on the subject, and when in fact there had been an utter disregard of its provisions, and on such certificates the public money was drawn;—

That the public money was appropriated to other objects than those specified in the law;—

That schools had been discontinued in the winter for the want of fuel;—

That schoolhouses were very generally neglected, and it would have been difficult to point, in the country districts, to a model schoolhouse, in reference to location, construction, ventilation, and the arrangements of seats and desks;—

That there was not a school in the State, where there was uniformity in the books used in the several district schools or in the same school;—

That the diversity and multiplicity of studies attempted to be taught to children of every age in one school, had led to an alarming neglect of the primary studies, and of the younger children;—

That there was hardly an instance of the gradation of schools, by which the evils of crowding children of different ages, of both sexes, in every variety of study and school book under a single teacher, were avoided;—

That teachers, although their qualifications were in advance of the public appreciation and compensation of their services, were employed, who had no special training for their duties, and who looked upon the employment only as a temporary resource;—

That the late and irregular attendance of children in many schools was such as to amount to an almost perfect waste of its privileges;—

That the instruction actually given to such as did attend, and attend regularly, was not often of a practical character, or calculated to form habits of accurate observation and clear reflection, and inspire the love of knowledge; and to crown the whole, as at once the cause and effect of the low state of common schools;—and

That there prevailed a profound apathy in the public mind generally, a disheartening impression that nothing could be done, or that nothing need be done, to improve them."

As many of these evils could be remedied by a more vigorous and enlightened public sentiment in the community, in relation to the whole subject, the pulpit, the press, the lecture room, and all the other agencies by which the general mind could be addressed and informed, were appealed to by the Board. So far as these defects resulted directly from the want of power in school districts, or the specific enumeration of the duties of school officers, or strict accountability on the part of all entrusted with its administration, an attempt was made to remedy them in the "Act concerning Schools," which passed both branches of the General Assembly, 1839.

In 1841 the laws relating to Common Schools were revised and consolidated in one Act, drawn up by Mr. Barnard, and among the visible and immediate results, not of compulsory legislation, but of the voluntary efforts of parents, committees, and districts, acting on the information and impulse given directly and indirectly by the measures of the Board, the following, were specified in the Fourth Annual Report of the Secretary of the Board, in May 1842.

"The attendance at society and district school meetings is more numerous.

More than fifty new schoolhouses have been built, and a much greater number repaired after approved models, and more has been done in this respect within four years, than for twenty years before.

School visiters are more strict in their examination of teachers, and regular and vigilant in visiting the schools as required by law.

A uniform set of books in all the schools of a society has been in some instances prescribed, and in others recommended, by the proper committee.

The evils of crowding children of different ages in a great variety of studies, and in different stages of progress in the same study, under one teacher, has been obviated in more than one hundred districts, by employing a female teacher for the younger children and primary studies, and a male teacher for the older and more advanced scholars—and in a few instances, by the establishment of a central or union school for the older children of a society, or of two or more districts.

Facilities have been provided for such as wished to qualify themselves to become teachers, or improve their previous qualifications by an appropriate course of study, by a practical acquaintance with the duties of the school room, by access to good books on the principles and art of teaching, and by associations for mutual improvement.

Good teachers are employed for a longer period in the same school, and at higher wages; the average length of schools, and wages of teachers, are increased; the superiority of females as the educators of young children, is acknowledged by their more general employment, and for a longer time.

More attention is now given to young children, and to the indispensable branches of spelling, reading, writing, and arithmetic, and more use is made of visible illustrations.

Wherever the common schools have been improved, the number attending them has increased, and the attendance and expense of private schools has diminished; and thus the advantages of a good education have been made common to rich and poor. And as at once the evidence of past, and the pledge of future improvements, parents, and men of education and influence generally, are found more frequently visiting schools, discharging with zeal the duties of school committees, conversing and reading on the subject, and acquainting themselves with the efforts which are making in this and other countries to give a more thorough and complete education to every human being."

In 1842, on recommendation of Governor Cleveland, all the provisions of the law relating to the supervision of the schools by the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools, and their Secretary, and to an annual report from them on their condition and improvement, were repealed, as well as those sections which provided for a thorough local supervision, by a subcommittee of the school visiters, who received a small compensation for their services; as well as those sections which aimed to put a stop to the multiplication of small districts, and those which related to the union of districts for the purpose of maintaining schools for the older children and the more advanced studies, were repealed.

As the abrogation of the Board of School Commissioners was recommended on the ground of its expense, the following extract from the Fourth Annual Report of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools, and signed by William W. Ellsworth, Seth P. Beers, F. A. Perkins, Andrew T. Judson, Samuel Church, Samuel D. Hubbard, Lorin P. Waldo, and Charles Robinson, may not be inappropriate.

"As some misunderstanding prevails on this subject, by which great injustice has been done to Mr. Barnard, as well as to the Board, it may be proper to state, that—

No member of the Board, as such, has received anything, either as compensation for services rendered, or for expenses incurred in attending the regular meetings of the Board, or in promoting, by correspondence or otherwise, the objects of their appointment.

The Secretary of the Board has been paid for his services the sum authorized by law, and on the same principle, that members of the Legislature, and every per diem officer in the employ of the state or national government is paid. He has not asked, or received, compensation for time spent out of the State on his own business, or for purposes of health or recreation. The whole amount allowed him, in the way of compensation, for nearly four years' devotion to the interest of the common schools of the State, is $3747, or $937 a year; and this sum, and more, he has expended back again in promoting, what he supposed to be, the prosperity and usefulness of these schools.

The aggregate expense authorized or incurred by the Board, since its organization to this time, including both the oompensation and expenses of the Secretary, is $5816 31, or $1473 a year; and for every dollar thus drawn from the treasury, an equal amount has been expended, by voluntary contribution, to promote the general object.

We can truly bear testimony to the indefatigable exertions and ability of

the Secretary of the Board, which he has exhibited from the beginning, in promoting the objects of his appointment, and carrying forward his noble and well directed efforts for the lasting benefit of our youth. His labors will long be felt in our schools, and be highly appreciated by all who entertain just and liberal views on education; and whether appreciated or not, he will assuredly have the satisfaction of having generously, with little or no pecuniary compensation, contributed four of the prime years of his life to the advancement of a cause well worthy of the persevering efforts of the greatest and best of men."

In 1844, Gov. Baldwin strongly called the attention of the Legislature to the importance of more liberal and enlightened legislation in behalf of Common Schools, and that Legislature authorized the Governor to appoint a Committee to ascertain the condition of the schools, and to report plans to the next session.

From a report made by Dr. William A. Alcott, after visiting schools and conferring with teachers, and school committees and parents, in a greater part of the State, during the winter of 1844, it would seem that the schools had gone back, or were fast going back to the state they were in in 1838.

The outline of the school system as it now stands is briefly this.

The state is divided up into School Societies, (213,) which were formerly Ecclesiastical corporations, created without reference to the boundaries of towns, but to the convenient attendance and support of divine worship. They are mainly subdivisions of large towns. These societies have all the powers given in the other New England States to towns in reference to schools, viz. the power of creating school districts, establishing, supporting and regulating schools, and of appointing committees and laying taxes for this purpose. Each school society is divided into small territorial corporations called school districts, with powers to build schoolhouses, appoint local committees, establish schools, lay taxes, and make regulations not inconsistent with those of the school society to which they belong.

The *authorities* entrusted with the administration of the system are 1. A *District Committee* of one or three persons, chosen annually by the legal voters of each district, with other district officers, such as clerk, collector and treasurer. 2. A *School Committee* of three persons in each society, who take care of all the financial business, with a clerk, collector and treasurer. 3. A Board of *School Visiters or Overseers*, of not more than nine persons, also elected annually in each society, who theoretically are entrusted with the entire management of the schools. This board must examine teachers; visit all the schools twice during each season of schooling; annul the certificates of teachers whom they find unqualified, and make an annual report to the school society. 4. The *Commissioner of the School Fund*, who is entrusted with the management and distribution of the avails of the School Fund. His duties are strictly financial, and his annual reports communicate no information as to the condition of the schools.

The *support* of the common schools is derived from the following sources. 1. The *annual income* of the School Fund. This amounted in 1844 to *one dollar and forty cents* to each person in the State over four and under sixteen years of age, or $117,717 60, the aggregate. 2. *One half* the income of the Town Deposite Fund. The sum deposited with the different towns was $764,670 61. The avails appropriated to the support of schools from this source was estimated in 1839 to about $33,000. 3. The *avails* of *Local School Funds*, amounting (the capital to about $100,000.) These yield about $6,000. 4. The avails of *School Society Tax*. This source has been abandoned in nearly every society. 5. The *avails of District Tax*. Except in a few city districts, this tax is not laid except to build and repair schoolhouses, and little or no help is derived for the annual expense of the schools from this source. 6. *Avails of a tax or rate bill on the parents and guardians of the children who attend school.* Most of the districts realize something from this source. It is not levied till the close of the winter or summer school, and the amount corresponds to the excess of the expenses of the

school over the sum received from the State. The average amount realized from all sources is estimated to be from $2 to 2 25 on each person between the ages of four and sixteen.

Teachers must by law be examined, and receive a certificate of qualification. In some societies this is rigidly done, and there the schools are in a flourishing state. There is, however, no provision for the training of young men and young women to be teachers.

For more particular information respecting the schools and school system of Connecticut, the reader is referred to the "Connecticut Common School Journal," published by Case, Tiffany & Burnham, Hartford, for 1838 to 42. four volumes, and to a volume of "Reports on the Common Schools of Connecticut, by Henry Barnard." This last volume embraces all the official documents and doings of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools, and of the Secretary of the Board from 1838 to 1842. Both works can be obtained of Case, Tiffany & Burnham.

Abstract of the Annual Report of the Commissioners of the School Fund to the General Assembly, in May 1844.

Capital of the Fund, April 1, 1844—		
1. In Bonds, Contracts and Mortgages,		$1,695,407 44
2. Bank Stock,		221,700 00
3. Cultivated Lands,		78,367 00
4. Wild Lands,		52,493 75
5. Stock on Farms,		210 00
6. Cash in Treasury,		3,245 58
Total amount of Capital,		$2,051,423 77
Revenue arising from the Fund—		
Balance on hand in Treasury, March 31, 1843,		$1,200 28
Receipts within the year ending March 31, 1844,		130,940 19
Total revenue,		$132,140 47
Disbursements from the revenue of the Fund,		$122,425 90
Balance of revenue in the Treasury,		9,714 57
Surplus Fund of revenue loaned,		16,250 00
Whole number of children between the ages of four and sixteen, upon which dividends were apportioned,		$84,084
Whole number of children on which dividends will be paid,		85,193
Number of towns in the State,		138
Number of school societies,		216
Number of school districts,		1,651
Rate of dividend to each child over four and under sixteen years,		$1,40
Salary of Commissioner,		$1250 00
Expenses of Commissioner,		$438,84
Services of Clerk,		

EDUCATIONAL PERIODICALS.

Every teacher, school committee, parent and friend of Education, who would inform himself respecting the schools and the school systems of other states and countries, and the efforts which are now making to improve them, and other means of popular improvement, should subscribe for one or more of the periodicals devoted exclusively to these subjects.

THE COMMON SCHOOL JOURNAL is published semi-monthly by Fowle and Capen, 184 Washington street, Boston, and edited by Horace Mann, Secretary of the Board of Education for Massachusetts; price, $1,00, payable in advance. Each number contains sixteen pages octavo.

The volume for the current year, (vol. 6,) which commenced in January last, contains the results of Mr. Mann's personal inquiries and observations respecting the schools and school systems of Holland, Prussia, Saxony, Scotland, and other countries of Europe, during the past year.

THE DISTRICT SCHOOL JOURNAL FOR THE STATE OF NEW-YORK, is published monthly under the patronage of the State, at Albany, and edited by Francis Dwight, Superintendent of Common Schools for the county of Albany.—Price, fifty cents a year.

A new volume (vol. 5) commenced in April and will contain the last Annual Report of Samuel Young, the State Superintendent of Common Schools, with selections from the Annual Reports of the several county Superintendents.

THE COMMON SCHOOL JOURNAL OF THE STATE OF PENNSYLVANIA, is published monthly by Edward C. Biddle, No. 6, South Fifth Street, Philadelphia, and Hickok and Cantine, Harrisburg, under the supervision of the Superintendent of Common Schools of the Commonwealth. Prof. John S. Hart, Principal of the Central High School of Philadelphia, Editor. Price $1.

The first volume commenced in January last, and contains the last Annual Report of the State Superintendent of Common Schools, and a republication of all the Annual Reports of the Controllers of Public Schools in Philadelphia.

Educational Tracts.

The subscribers propose to publish a series of TRACTS, relating to the Condition and Improvement of Popular Education in the United States, prepared by Henry Barnard, Esq., late Secretary of the Board of Commissioners of Public Schools in Connecticut.

The *First Series* will consist of the following Numbers:—

Number 1. Condition of Education in the United States, according to the Census of 1840, with an Outline of the Common School Systems of New York and Connecticut.

Number 2. System of Common Schools in Massachusetts.

Numbsr 3. Education in its relation to Health, Insanity, Labor, Pauperism and Crime.

Number 4. School-Architecture—or Plans and Directions for the location construction and Internal Arrangement of School houses.

Number 5. Outline of a System of Common or Public Schools for Cities and large Villages, with an account of the Public Schools in Boston, Providence, Portland, Salem, Lowell, Philadelphia, &c.

Number 6. School District Libraries, Books on the Theory and Art of Education and Educational Periodicals.

Of these, Nos. 1, 3 and 4 are now printed and each number will be furnished in packages of one hundred copies, at the mere cost of publication, viz:—*one dollar* per hundred.

Numbers 2, 5 and 6 will be ready for delivery in the course of the next month.

CASE, TIFFANY & BURNHAM,

Hartford, November 1, 1844. City Printing Office.

EDUCATION

IN ITS RELATIONS TO

HEALTH, INSANITY, LABOR, PAUPERISM AND CRIME.

THE object of the following facts and suggestions, gathered from the various sources indicated, is to show that EDUCATION—an Education which shall embrace the culture of the whole man, his physical and moral nature, as well as his intellectual faculties—such an Education as can be given to all the children of a community, under a well organized and thoroughly administered system of public schools—is directly and powerfully calculated—

I. TO DIMINISH THE SUFFERINGS ARISING FROM DISEASE, AND TO PROLONG LIFE.

II. TO INCREASE THE VALUE OF MERE PHYSICAL LABOR, AND GIVE A HIGHER CHARACTER, MORE EXTENDED USEFULNESS, AND BETTER COMPENSATION TO THE LABORER.

III. TO PREVENT THE FORMATION OF THOSE HABITS WHICH LEAD TO PAUPERISM AND CRIME.

EDUCATION AND HEALTH.

As it can never be well with us *morally*, unless we obey the laws of duty, so it can never be well with us *physically*, unless we obey the laws of health. But we cannot obey, unless we know the law to be obeyed, and we cannot possess this knowledge unless we are endowed with capacities, which by cultivation can be made competent to attain it.

When we look into our own family circles, or abroad upon the community, and behold the utter waste and havoc which disease and infirmity so often make of human usefulness and happiness, the protracted or condensed agonies of the chamber of sickness, the bereavement of parents, or the orphanage of children, we might be almost tempted to question the goodness of the Being by whom we have been called into existence, were we not assured that "affliction cometh not forth of the dust, neither doth trouble spring out of the ground." This "affliction and trouble," are designed to show us that some rule has been transgressed which the Divine Being in his wisdom had established. They are always monitors to warn us to obedience when we have erred wilfully; or, when we have erred ignorantly, to stimulate us to acquire the requisite knowledge, as well as to practice upon it when acquired. Every bodily pain is a special notification that some part of the machinery of life is out of order.

I have the concurrent authority of many of our most eminent physicians for saying, that *one half* of all human disability, of the suffering and early death inflicted upon mankind, proceeds from ignorance,—from sheer ignorance,—of facts and principles, which every parent, *by virtue of his parental relation*, is as much bound to know, as a judge is bound to know the civil or criminal law which he undertakes to administer; or as a juror, in a case of

life and death, is bound to understand the evidence on which his verdict is to be rendered.

Within the last six years I have visited schools in every section of the Commonwealth, seaboard and inland, city and country. Every day's observation has added proof to proof and argument to argument, respecting the importance of physical training.

In visiting schools, I have found it a common occurrence when the hour of recess arrives, and the scholars are permitted to go out and take exercise for ten minutes in the open air, that some half dozen pupils, with pale faces, narrow chests, and feeble frames, will continue bending over their desks, too intent upon their lessons to be aroused by the joyous shouts that ring through the schoolroom from abroad. These, the teacher complacently points out as the jewels of his school, and fathers and mothers look on with swelling hearts, and glistening eyes, as the bright vision of future honors and renown rises to their view. Alas, they do not know that those children are victims of an over-active brain, and that every such disproportionate mental effort is a cast of the shuttle that weaves their shrouds! Of all the pupils in the school, it is most important that those who are disposed to sit so long and study so intensely, should be lured forth to engage in some genial sport.

So, in nine-tenths of the schools in the State, composed of children below seven or eight years of age, the practice still prevails of allowing but one recess in the customary session of three hours, although every physiologist and physician knows, that for every forty-five or fifty minutes' confinement in the schoolroom, all children, under those ages, should have at least the remaining fifteen or ten minutes of the hour for exercise in the open air.

In traveling through the country, how often will a man, who is at once intelligent and benevolent, be pained at witnessing the location of dwelling-houses on low and marshy spots of ground, where the dampness and exhalations from beneath, must be like the daily administration of a poison to the families who reside in them!

How few of our public houses,—whether the schoolhouse, the courthouse, the lecture-room or the church,—are constructed with any suitable regard to ventilation! And even when they have been constructed upon scientific principles, if they are managed by persons who are ignorant of those principles, the benefits of the construction are cancelled. In cities, and in many of our large manufacturing towns, there is an enormous prostration of health and strength, attributable to the smallness and the closeness of the sleeping apartments. In this way the soundest economy is defeated, because it is for the interest of any manufacturer or capitalist, whatever his department of business, to employ healthy workmen. Canal-boats and steam-boats commit hardly less havoc upon life and comfort by their accidents and explosions, than by the poisonous atmosphere, in which it would almost seem as though their conductors regarded it as a part of their official duty to steep the passengers. How often are the senses offended by the impurity of the atmosphere, on entering large apartments where great numbers of workmen or workwomen,—shoemakers, tailors, compositors,—are plying their tasks,—especially in the evening, when dozens of smoking lamps are each sending off a stream of poison, in addition to the vitiated atmosphere respired from as many pairs of lungs! As such companies often work in a thin, light dress, or even in an undress, they regard only the physical sensations of heat or cold, while they are neglectful of the vital necessity of pure air.

The immediate effects of breathing impure air are, lassitude of the whole system, incapability of concentrated thought, obtuseness and uncertainty of the senses, followed by torpor, dizziness, faintness, and, if long continued, by death. When great mental efforts are put forth, simultaneously with the inhalation of impure air, so much black blood is forced into the brain in order to sustain its energies, that a fit of apoplexy at once closes the scene. Instances of this will occur to every observant mind. That of the late chief justice Parker of Massachusetts, of Mr. Emmet of New York, and Mr. Pinckney of Charleston, were obviously cases of this kind. Had their court-rooms

been well ventilated, it may be considered as almost certain that neither of these melancholy events would have happened. Those great men were sacrifices to the barbarous manner in which the court-rooms of a community calling itself civilized, had been constructed. They were profoundly learned in the laws of the land, but as profoundly ignorant or disregardful, of the laws of nature. The eminent and excellent chief justice of Massachusetts was just as much the victim of a violated law, as the malefactors whom he was trying, when he died.

All these are flagrant, conspicuous monuments of public ignorance on the subject of Physiology. They are practices which, if the common mind were once enlightened, would pass away, like the barbarian rite of sacrificing a child to prevent an eclipse.

How many of our social regulations pertaining to diet are a systematic infraction of these laws of nature. Some of them could not have contravened those laws more, had such been the express purpose of their adoption. The arrangements of many families, the short intermissions of our schools, and, in some instances, of our churches, and other public assemblies, the haste of travellers, the brief time occupied in eating in boarding-houses for work-people, whether mechanics in shops, or laborers on public works, or operatives in factories;—all these practices tend powerfully to depress the standard of health amongst us, and to expose us on all sides to the invasion of disease. In all these and in other particulars, the customs of our people have been adopted in ignorance of the laws of Physiology, and they will never be reformed until that ignorance is dispelled. Passengers in rail-road cars and on board steam-boats, seem to eat with a rapidity suggested by their new powers of locomotion, as though the processes of nature could be expedited by their impatience of delay. Students in academies and colleges, when eating at a common table, are no exceptions to this general statement; and though an hour of mental relaxation and of social excitement,—*of hilarity, genial yet gentlemanly*,—is needed in an especial manner by students at their meals, yet, in many of our literary institutions, they are subjected to the Auburn and Sing-Sing discipline of eating in perfect silence.—*Mr. Mann's Sixth Annual Report.*

The following facts are taken from a "*Report of the Poor Law Commissioners, on the Sanitary Condition of the Laboring Population of Great Britain*, 1842. The Report traces back a vast proportion of the personal sufferings, physical degeneracy, and brevity of life, of the laboring people, to their sources; and finds their proximate causes to be a want of cleanliness both of dress and person, living in wet or damp apartments, insufficient or unhealthy food, and pre-eminently, the indulgence in intoxicating drinks, and the breathing of a corrupt atmosphere.

No. of deaths.		Av. age of dec.
	IN TRURO.	
33	Professional persons, or gentry, and their families,	40 years.
138	Persons engaged in trade, or similarly circumstanced, and their families.	33 "
447	Laborers, artisans, and others similarly circumstanced, and their families,	28 "
	IN DERBY.	
10	Professional persons, or gentry,	49 "
125	Tradesmen,	38 "
752	Laborers and artisans,	21 "
	BOLTON UNION.	
103	Gentlemen and persons engaged in professions, and their families,	34 "
381	Tradesmen and their families,	23 "
2232	Mechanics, servants, laborers, and their families,	18 "

BETHNAL GREEN.

101	Gentlemen and persons engaged in professions, and their families,	45	"
273	Tradesmen and their families,	26	"
1258	Mechanics, servants, and laborers, and their families,	16	"

LEEDS BOROUGH.

79	Gentlemen and persons engaged in professions, and their families,	44	"
824	Tradesmen, farmers, and their families,	27	"
3395	Operatives, laborers, and their families,	19	"

LIVERPOOL, 1840.

137	Gentry and professional persons, &c.	35	"
1738	Tradesmen and their families,	22	"
5597	Laborers, mechanics, and servants, &c.	15	"

WHITECHAPEL UNION.

37	Gentlemen and persons engaged in professions, and their families,	45	"
387	Tradesmen and their families,	27	"
1762	Mechanics, servants and laborers, and their families,	22	"

UNIONS IN THE COUNTY OF WILTS.

119	Gentlemen and persons engaged in professions, and their families,	50	"
218	Farmers and their families,	48	"
2061	Agricultural laborers and their families,	33	"

EDUCATION AND INSANITY.

A defective and faulty education, through the period of infancy and childhood, may, perhaps, be found to be the most prolific cause of insanity; by this, in many, a predisposition is produced, in others it is excited, and renders incontrollable the animal propensities of our nature. Appetites indulged and perverted, passion unrestrained, and propensities rendered vigorous by indulgence, and subjected to no salutary restraint, bring us into a condition in which both moral and physical causes easily operate to produce insanity, if they do not produce it themselves.

We must look to a well directed system of education, having for its object physical improvement, no less than mental and moral culture, to relieve us from many of the evils which "flesh is heir to," and nothing can so effectually secure us from this most formidable disease, as well as others not less appalling, as that system of instruction which teaches us how to preserve the body and the mind; to fortify the one from the catalogue of physical causes which every where assail us, and which elevates the other above the influence of the trials and disappointments of life, so that the hosts of moral causes which affect the brain, through the medium of the mind, shall be inoperative and harmless.—*Dr. S. B. Woodward's Seventh Annual Report as Superintendent of State Lunatic Asylum, Worcester, Mass.*

Those first principles of physical education which teach us how to avoid disease, are all-important to all liable to insanity from hereditary predisposition. The physical health must be attended to, and the training of the faculties of the mind be such as to counteract the active propensities of our nature, correct the disposition of the mind to wrong currents and too great activity, by bringing into action the antagonizing powers, and thus giving a sound body and a well balanced mind. Neglect of this early training entails evils upon the young which are felt in all after life.—*Do. Eighth Annual Report.*

Having been connected with the Connecticut Retreat for the Insane, as Chaplain, for more than six years, during which time I have become personally and familiarly acquainted with most of its inmates, and had the opportu-

nity of observing their mental and moral characteristics, and of knowing the striking features of very many of their cases, I subscribe fully to the sentiments of Dr. S. B. Woodward on this important subject, so clearly and forcibly expressed by that very distinguished physician, that I hardly feel that I can add any thing of my own to them deserving your notice.—*T. H. Gallaudet to H. Barnard.*

The records of cases at this institution, and my own observation justify me in saying that the neglect of moral discipline,—the too great indulgence of the passions and emotions in early life, together with the excessive and premature exercise of the mental powers, are among the most frequent causes that predispose to insanity. But these causes are in no other way operative in producing insanity, than by unduly exciting the brain. By neglect of moral discipline, a character is formed subject to violent passions, and to extreme emotions, and anxiety from the unavoidable evils and disappointments of life, and thus the brain, by being often and violently agitated, becomes diseased; and by too early exercising, and prematurely developing the mental powers, this organ is rendered more susceptible and liable to disease.

I am confident there is too much mental labor imposed upon youth at our schools and colleges. There have been several admissions of young ladies at this institution, direct from boarding-schools, and of young men from college, where they had studied excessively. Should such intense exertion of the mind in youth not lead to insanity, or immediate disease, it predisposes to dyspepsia, hysteria, hypochondriasis, and affections allied to insanity, and which are often its precursors.—*Dr. Brigham's Report as Superintendent of the Connecticut Retreat.*

EDUCATION AND LABOR.

During the past year I have opened a correspondence, and availed myself of all opportunities to hold personal interviews with many of the most practical, sagacious, and intelligent business men amongst us, who for many years have had large numbers of persons in their employment.

The result of the investigation is a most astonishing superiority in productive power, on the part of the educated over the uneducated laborer. The hand is found to be another hand, when guided by an intelligent mind. Processes are performed, not only more rapidly, but better, when faculties which have been exercised in early life, furnish their assistance. Individuals who, without the aid of knowledge, would have been condemned to perpetual inferiority of condition, and subjected to all the evils of want and poverty, rise to competence and independence, by the uplifting power of education. In great establishments, and among large bodies of laboring men, where all services are rated according to their pecuniary value, where there are no extrinsic circumstances to bind a man down to a fixed position, after he has shown a capacity to rise above it;—where, indeed, men pass by each other, ascending or descending in their grades of labor, just as easily and certainly as particles of water of different degrees of temperature glide by each other,—there it is found as an almost invariable fact,—other things being equal,—that those who have been blessed with a good Common School education, rise to a higher and higher point, in the kinds of labor performed, and also in the rate of wages paid, while the ignorant sink, like dregs, and are always found at the bottom.—*Mr. Mann's Fifth Annual Report as Secretary of the Mass. Board of Education.* * * * *

The house with which I am connected in business, has had for the last ten years, the principal direction of cotton mills, machine shops and calico printing works, in which are constantly employed about three thousand persons. The opinions I have formed of the effects of a Common School education upon our manufacturing population, are the result of personal observation and inquiries, and are confirmed by the testimony of the overseers and agents,

who are brought into immediate contact with the operatives. They are as follows :—

1.—That the rudiments of a Common School education are essential to the attainment of skill and expertness as laborers, or to consideration and respect in the civil and social relations of life.

2.—That very few, who have not enjoyed the advantages of a Common School education, ever rise above the lowest class of operatives; and that the labor of this class, when it is employed in manufacturing operations, which require even a very moderate degree of manual or mental dexterity, is unproductive.

3.—That a large majority of the overseers, and others employed in situations which require a high degree of skill in particular branches; which, oftentimes require a good general knowledge of business, and, *always*, an unexceptionable moral character, have made their way up from the condition of common laborers, with no other advantage over a large proportion of those they have left behind, than that derived from a better education.

A statement made from the books of one of the manufacturing companies under our direction, will show the relative number of the two classes, and the earnings of each. This mill may be taken as a fair index of all the others.

The average number of operatives annually employed for the last three years, is 1200. Of this number, there are 45 unable to write their names, or about 3¾ per cent.

The average of women's wages, in the departments requiring the most skill, is $2,50 per week, exclusive of board.

The average of wages in the lowest departments, is $1,25 per week.

Of the 45 who are unable to write, 29, or about two thirds, are employed in the lowest department. The difference between the wages earned by the 45, and the average wages of an equal number of the better educated class, is about 27 per cent. in favor of the latter.

The difference between the wages earned by 29 of the lowest class, and the same number in the higher, is 66 per cent.

Of 17 persons filling the most responsible situations in the mills, 10 have grown up in the establishment from common laborers or apprentices.

This statement does not include an importation of 63 persons from Manchester, in England, in 1839. Among these persons, there was scarcely one who could read or write, and although a part of them had been accustomed to work in cotton mills, yet, either from incapacity or idleness, they were unable to earn sufficient to pay for their subsistence, and at the expiration of a few weeks, not more than half a dozen remained in our employment.

In some of the print works, a large proportion of the operatives are foreigners. Those who are employed in the branches which require a considerable degree of skill, are as well educated as our people, in similar situations. But the common laborers, as a class, are without any education, and their average earnings are about two-thirds only of those of *our* lowest classes, although the prices paid to each are the same, for the same amount of work.

Among the men and boys employed in our machine shops, the want of education is quite rare; indeed, I do not know an instance of a person who is unable to read and write, and many have a good Common School education. To this may be attributed the fact that a large proportion of persons who fill the higher and more responsible situations, came from this class of workmen.

From these statements, you will be able to form some estimate, in dollars and cents, at least, of the advantages of a little education to the operative; and there is not the least doubt that the employer is equally benefitted. He has the security for his property that intelligence, good morals, and a just appreciation of the regulations of his establishment, always afford. His machinery and mills, which constitute a large part of his capital, are in the hands of persons, who, by their skill, are enabled to use them to their utmost capacity, and to prevent any unnecessary depreciation. * * *

My belief is, that the best cotton mill in New England, with such operatives only as the 45 mentioned above, who are unable to write their names, would never yield the proprietor a profit; that the machinery would soon be worn out, and he would be left, in a short time, with a population no better than that which is represented, as I suppose, very fairly, by the importation from England.—*Letter from S. K. Mills, Esq. Boston, to Mr. Mann.*

I have been engaged, for nearly ten years, in manufacturing, and have had the constant charge of from 400 to 900 persons, during that time * * and have come in contact with a very great variety of character and disposition, and have seen mind applied to production in the mechanic and manufacturing arts, possessing different degrees of intelligence, from gross ignorance to a high degree of cultivation; and I have no hesitation in affirming that I have found the best educated, to be the most profitable help; even those females who merely tend machinery, give a result somewhat in proportion to the advantages enjoyed in early life for education,—those who have a good Common School education giving, as a class, invariably, a better production than those brought up in ignorance. * * * *

I have uniformly found the better educated, as a class, possessing a higher and better state of morals, more orderly and respectful in their deportment, and more ready to comply with the wholesome and necessary regulations of an establishment. And in times of agitation, on account of some change in regulations or wages, I have always looked to the most intelligent, best educated, and the most moral for support, and have seldom been disappointed. For, while they are the last to submit to imposition, they *reason*, and if your requirements are reasonable, they will generally acquiesce, and exert a salutary influence upon their associates. But the ignorant and uneducated I have generally found the most turbulent and troublesome, acting under the impulse of excited passion and jealousy.

The former appear to have an interest in sustaining good order, while the latter seem more reckless of consequences. And, to my mind, all this is perfectly natural. The better educated have more, and stronger attachments binding them to the place where they are. They are generally neater, as I have before said, in their persons, dress and houses; surrounded with more comforts, with fewer of "the ills which flesh is heir to." In short, I have found the educated, as a class, more cheerful and contented,—devoting a portion of their leisure time to reading and intellectual pursuits, more with their families and less in scenes of dissipation.

The good effect of all this, is seen in the more orderly and comfortable appearance of the whole household, but no where more strikingly than in the children. A mother who has had a good Common School education will rarely suffer her children to grow up in ignorance. * * *

From my observation and experience, I am perfectly satisfied that the owners of manufacturing property have a deep pecuniary interest in the education and morals of their help; and I believe the time is not distant when the truth of this will appear more and more clear. And as competition becomes more close, and small circumstances of more importance in turning the scale in favor of one establishment over another, I believe it will be seen that the establishment, other things being equal, which has the best educated and the most moral help, will give the greatest production at the least cost per pound. So confident am I that production is affected by the intellectual and moral character of help, that whenever a mill or a room should fail to give the proper amount of work, my first inquiry, after that respecting the condition of the machinery, would be, *as to the character of the help*, and if the deficiency remained any great length of time, I am sure I should find many who had made their marks upon the pay-roll, being unable to write their names; and I should be greatly disappointed if I did not, upon inquiry, find a portion of them of irregular habits and suspicious character.—*H. Bartlett, Esq. Lowell.*

I have had under my superintendence, upon an average, about 1500 persons of both sexes ; and that my experience fully sustains and confirms the results, to which Mr. Bartlett has arrived. I have found, with very few exceptions, the best educated among my hands to be the most capable, intelligent, energetic, industrious, economical and moral; that they produce the best work, and the most of it, with the least injury to the machinery. They are, in all respects, the most useful, profitable, and the safest of our operatives; and, as a class, they are more thrifty and more apt to accumulate property for themselves.

I have recently instituted some inquiries into the comparative wages of our different classes of operatives; and among other results, I find the following applicable to our present purpose. On our pay-roll for the last month, are borne the names of 1229 female operatives, forty of whom receipted for their pay by "making their mark." Twenty-six of these have been employed in job-work, that is, they were paid according to the quantity of work turned off from their machines. The average pay of these twenty-six falls 18¾ per cent. below the general average of those engaged in the same departments.

Again, we have in our mills about 150 females who have at some time, been engaged in *teaching schools*. Many of them teach during the summer months, and work in the mills in the winter. The average wages of these ex-teachers I find to be 17¾ per cent. *above the general average of our mills, and about forty per cent. above the wages of the twenty-six who cannot write their names.* It may be said that they are generally employed in the higher departments, where the pay is better. This is true, but this again may be, in most cases, fairly attributed to their better education, which brings us to the same result. If I had included in my calculations, the remaining fourteen of the forty, who are mostly sweepers and scrubbers, and who are paid by the day, the contrasts would have been still more striking ; but having no well educated females engaged in this department with whom to compare them, I have omitted them all together. In arriving at the above results I have not considered the *net wages* merely—the price of board being in all cases the same. I do not consider these results as either extraordinary, or surprising, but as a part only of the legitimate and proper fruits of a better cultivation, and fuller development of the intellectual and moral powers.—*J. Clark, Esq. Lowell.*

In the present state of manufactures, where so much is done by machinery and tools, and so little is done by mere brute labor (and that little is diminishing,) mental superiority, system, order, and punctuality and good conduct, qualities all developed and promoted by education—are becoming of the highest consequence. There are now, I consider, few enlightened manufacturers who will dissent from the opinion, that the workshops peopled with the greatest number of educated and well-informed workmen will turn out the greatest quantity of the best work in the best manner.

From the accounts which pass through my hands, I invariably find that the best educated of our work-people manage to live in the most respectable manner at the least expense, or make their money go the furthest in obtaining comforts. * * * By education, I may say, that I throughout mean, not merely instruction in the arts of reading writing, and arithmetic, but better general mental development ; the acquisition of better tastes, and of mental amusements and enjoyments which are cheaper, whilst they are more refined. The most educated of our British workmen is a Scotch engineer, a single man who has a salary of 3*l.* a-week, or 150*l.* per year, of which he spends about one-half; he lives in very respectable lodgings, he is always well dressed, he frequents reading-rooms, he subscribes to a circulating library, purchases mathematical instruments, studies German, and has every rational enjoyment. We have an English workman, a single man, also, of the same standing, who has the same wages, also a very orderly and sober person; but as his education does not open to him the resource of mental enjoyment, he spends his evenings and Sundays in wine-houses, because he cannot find other

sources of amusement, which presuppose a better education, and he spends his whole pay, or one-half more than the other. The extra expenditure of the workman of lower education of 75*l.* a-year arises entirely, as far as I can judge, from inferior arrangement, and the comparatively higher cost of the mere sensual enjoyment in the wine-house.—*A. G. Escher, Switzerland; Secretary of Poor Law Commissioners.*

If there be any intricate work in anything that requires close mental application, as a class we always select the men of the best school education first. In out-door work, when, for example, there is a steam-engine, or a water-wheel, or mill-work to erect, a foreman or some responsible workman must be chosen, and the choice in nine cases out of ten falls on the man of the best school education. It is then found to be very useful to have a man capable of making a drawing, taking dimensions, or sending a letter.

We find that those who have had a good school education have had a better conception of the organization and system implied in change of operation. It appears to require mental training in early life to enable a man to arrange a sequence of operations in the best manner for clear and efficient practical efforts. Men with such capacity we rarely find, except amongst those who have had a school education.

There is no doubt that the educated are more sober and less dissipated than the uneducated. During the hours of recreation the younger portion of the educated workmen indulge more in reading and mental pleasures; they attend more at reading rooms, and avail themselves of the facilities afforded by libraries, by scientific lectures, and Lyceums. The older of the more educated workmen spend their time chiefly with their families, reading and walking out with them. The time of the uneducated classes is spent very different, and chiefly in the grosser sensual indulgencies.—*William Fairbairn, Esq. Manchester.*

A few instances, of a familiar kind, exemplifying the axiom that "knowledge is power."

M. Redelet, in his work *Sur l'Art de Bâtir*, gives the following account of an experiment made to test the different amounts of force, which, under different circumstances, were necessary to move a block of squared granite, weighing 1080 pounds.

In order to move this block along the floor of a roughly chiselled quarry, it required a force equal to 758 lbs.

To draw the same stone over a floor of planks, it required a force equal to 652 lbs.

Placed on a platform of wood, and drawn over the same floor, it required 606 lbs.

By soaping the two surfaces of wood, the requisite force was reduced to 182 lbs.

Placed on rollers, of three inches' diameter, and a force equal to 34 lbs. was sufficient.

Substituting a wooden for a stone floor, and the requisite force was 28 lbs.

With the same rollers on a wooden platform, it required a force equal to 22 lbs. only.

At this point, the experiments of M. Redelet stopped. But, by improvements since effected, in the invention and use of locomotives on railroads, a traction or draught of eight pounds is sufficient to move a ton of 2240 lbs.,—so that a force of less than four pounds would now be sufficient to move the granite block of 1080 lbs.;—that is, one hundred and eighty-eight times less than was required in the first instance. When, therefore, mere animal or muscular force was used to move the body, it required about two-thirds of its own weight to accomplish the object; but, by adding the contrivances of *mind* to the strength of *muscle*, the force necessary to remove it is reduced more than one hundred and eighty-eight times. Here, then, is a partnership, in which *mind* contributes one hundred and eighty-eight shares to the stock, to one share contributed by *muscle*;—or, while *brute strength* represents one

man, *ingenuity* or *intelligence* represents one hundred and eighty-eight men!

Dr. Potter, in his late work, entitled "The Principles of Science, applied to the Domestic and Mechanic Arts, and to Manufactures and Agriculture," has the following, p. 29, *n.*:—

A very good *hand weaver*, twenty-five or thirty years of age, will weave *two* pieces of 9-8ths shirting a week.

In 1823, a *steam-loom weaver*, about fifteen years of age, attending two looms, could weave *seven* similar pieces in a week.

In 1826, a *steam-loom weaver*, about fifteen years of age, attending two looms, could weave *twelve* similar pieces in a week; some could weave *fifteen* pieces.

In 1833, a *steam-loom weaver*, from fifteen to twenty years of age, assisted by a girl about twelve years of age, attending four looms, could weave *eighteen* similar pieces in a week; some could weave *twenty* pieces.

Here, then, during a period of only ten years, the application of *mind* to a particular branch of business, enabled a lad of fifteen years of age, assisted by a girl of twelve, to do from nine to ten times as much work as had before been done by an accomplished and mature workman.

Babbage, in his valuable work entitled the Economy of Machinery and Manufactures, says: Without tools, that is, by the mere efforts of the human hand, there are, undoubtedly, multitudes of things which it would be impossible to make. Add to the human hand the rudest cutting instrument, and its powers are enlarged;—the fabrication of many things then becomes easy, and that of others possible, with great labor. Add the saw to the knife or the hatchet, and other works become possible, and a new course of difficult operations is brought into view, whilst many of the former are rendered easy. This observation is applicable even to the most perfect tools or machines. It would be *possible* for a very skillful workman, with files and polishing substances, to form a cylinder out of a piece of steel; but the time which this would require, would be so considerable, and the number of failures would, probably, be so great, that, for all practical purposes, such a mode of producing a steel cylinder might be said to be impossible. The same process, by the aid of the lathe and the sliding-rest, is the every-day employment of hundreds of workmen.—*Babbage on the Economy of Machinery and Manufactures.*

Not more than thirty years ago, it was uncommon for a glazier's apprentice, even after having served an apprenticeship of seven years, to be able to cut glass with a diamond, without spending much time, and destroying much of the glass upon which he worked. The invention of a simple tool has put it in the power of the merest tyro in the trade to cut glass with facility and without loss. A man, who had a *mind as well as fingers*, observed that there was one direction in which the diamond was almost incapable of abrasion or wearing by use. The tool not only steadies the diamond, but fastens it in that direction.

Similar advancements have been effected throughout the whole compass of human labor and research;—in the arts of Transportation and Locomotion, from the employment of the sheep and the goat, as beasts of burden, to the steam-engine and the railroad car;—in the art of Navigation, from the canoe clinging timidly to the shore, to steamships which boldly traverse the ocean; in Hydraulics, from carrying water by hand, in a vessel, or in horizontal aqueducts, to those vast conduits which supply the demands of a city, and to steam fire-engines which throw a column of water to the top of the loftiest buildings;—in the arts of Spinning and Rope-making, from the hand distaff to the spinning frame, and to the machine which makes cordage or cables of any length, in a space ten feet square; in Horology or Timekeeping, from the sun-dial and the water-clock, to the watch, and to the chronometer, by which the mariner is assisted in measuring his longitude, and in saving property and life;—in the extraction, forging and tempering of Iron and other

ores, having malleability to be wrought into all forms, and used for all purposes, and supplying, instead of the stone-hatchet or the fish-shell of the savage, an almost infinite variety of instruments, which have sharpness for cutting, or solidity for striking;—in the arts of Vitrification, or Glass-making, giving not only a multitude of commodious and ornamental utensils for the household, but substituting the window for the unsightly orifice or open casement, and winnowing light and warmth from the outward and the cold atmosphere;—in the arts of Induration by Heat, from bricks dried in the sun, to those which withstand the corrosion of our climate for centuries, or resist the intensity of the furnace;—in the arts of Illumination, from the torch cut from the fir or pine-tree, to the brilliant gas-light which gives almost a solar splendor to the nocturnal darkness of our cities;—in the arts of Heating and Ventilation, which at once supply warmth for comfort and pure air for health;—in the art of Building, from the hollowed trunk of a tree, or the roof-shaped cabin, to those commodious and lightsome dwellings which betoken the taste and competence of our villages and cities;—in the art of Copying or Printing, from the toilsome process of hand-copying, where th etranscription of a single book was the labor of months or years, and sometimes almost of a life, to the power printing-press, which throws off sixty printed sheets in a minute;—in the art of Paper-making, from the preparation of the inner bark of a tree, cleft off, and dried at immense labor, to the machinery of Fourdrinier, from which there jets out an unbroken stream of paper, with the velocity and continuousness of a current of water;—and, in addition to all these, in the arts of Modelling and Casting; of Designing, Engraving, and Painting; of Preserving materials and of Changing their color, of Dividing and Uniting them, &c. &c.,—an ample catalogue, whose very names and processes would fill volumes.

Now, for the perfecting of all these operations, from the tedious and bungling process, to the rapid and elegant;—for the change of an almost infinite variety of crude and worthless materials into useful and beautiful fabrics, *mind* has been the agent. Succeeding generations have outstripped their predecessors, just in proportion to the superiority of their mental cultivation. When we compare different people or different generations with each other, the diversity is so great that all must behold it. But there is the same kind of difference between contemporaries, fellow-townsmen, and fellow-laborers. Though the uninstructed man works side by side with the intelligent, yet the mental difference between them, places them in the same relation to each other, that a past age bears to the present. If the ignorant man knows no more respecting any particular art or branch of business, than was generally known during the last century, he belongs to the last century; and he must consent to be outstripped by those who have the light and knowledge of the present. Though they are engaged in the same kind of work, though they are supplied with the same tools or implements for carrying it on, yet, so long as one has only an arm, but the other has an arm and a mind, their products will come out, stamped and labelled, all over, with marks of contrast; superiority and inferiority, both as to quantity and quality, will be legibly written on their respective labors.

Amongst a people, then, who must gain their subsistence by their labor, what can be so economical, so provident and far-sighted, and even so wise,—in a lawful and laudable, though not in the highest sense of that word,—as to establish, and, with open heart and hand, to endow and sustain the most efficient system of Universal Education for their children; and, where the material bounties of nature are comparatively narrow and stinted, to explore, in their stead, those exhaustless and illimitable resources of comfort, and competency, and independence, which lie hidden in the yet dormant powers of the human intellect?—*Mr. Mann's Fifth Annual Report.*

EDUCATION AND PAUPERISM.

"Out of sixteen paupers," says a late writer "examined at the Workhouse of the Union in Faversham (Eng.), only two had ever saved up so much as *ten pounds*, notwithstanding that several of them had been in the receipt, for some time, of from twenty to forty shillings a week! and not one had ever kept any account of receipt and expenditure! They being merely able to read makes little difference in this respect, for in the number examined, there were several who could do so. Indeed, the most prudent of the two who had saved had received no education. * * * He bitterly regretted his want of education, which, he said, had prevented his embracing many opportunities that offered of bettering his condition, and compelled him to finish a life of industry in the workhouse, instead of occupying a respectable situation in society. Several others complained that they had never been taught to look forward to the consequences of their own acts. One man, a shoemaker, about twenty-eight years of age, who was in the house with his wife and five children, attributed his poverty and pitiable condition entirely to this cause. When asked if he did not calculate, before marrying so early, his means to support a wife and family, his answer was, 'No, sir—never gave it a thought—never thought of anything. You see, sir, we ain't used to look forward.'"

The following table exhibits the state of education among paupers above the age of sixteen, the inmates of workhouses in the Counties of Norfolk and Kent, (England), collected in 1837.

Besides the distinction of sexes, the paupers are divided into three classes, viz., able-bodied, temporarily disabled, and old and infirm; and it is stated, with reference to each class, how many can read in a superior manner, how many can read decently, and how many imperpectly; their acquirements in regard to writing are also given with the same gradations; the number of paupers who can neither read nor write is next stated, and, lastly, the number of each class who had been the inmates of workhouses before the formation of the respective unions.

	Men.			Women.			
	Able-bodied.	Temporarily disabled.	Old & Infirm.	Able-bodied.	Temporarily disabled.	Old & Infirm.	Total.
Number of each class in workhouses	161	147	1015	508	196	698	2725
Number who can read superiorly	6	7	22	26	13	14	88
Number who can read decently	49	46	292	149	50	174	760
Number who can read imperfectly	14	21	125	106	33	99	398
Number who can write superiorly	1	2	4	4	2	1	14
Number who can write decently	21	39	167	43	13	44	327
Number who can write imperfectly	12	23	113	40	30	33	251
Number who can neither read nor write	86	62	544	211	95	404	1402
Number of inmates of workhouses before uni'n	84	90	710	235	129	513	1761

It cannot fail to strike every one who sees these figures, how exceedingly small is the proportion of those persons who, having been so far instructed as to be able to read and write in a superior manner, are found to be inmates of the workhouse. Fluency in the art of reading, unaccompanied by proficiency in writing, affords no proof of adequate instruction. It would be more correct to say, that the absence of the latter acquirement is in itself evidence of the uncultivated condition of the mind. It will be seen that among the 2725 paupers, included in the foregoing statement, only fourteen, or one in 195, could write well; and that if we add to the 1402 persons who can neither read nor write those who can read only imperfectly, they make up just two thirds.

EDUCATION AND CRIME.

According to a table prepared by Joseph Bentley, (England) after a careful investigation by him into the population, number of Schools, number of Libraries, number of Literary and Scientific institutions, number of places for the sale of intoxicating liquors, and the number of criminal convictions within the year, in each county, it appears that

If you take the four best instructed counties of England, as exhibited on this chart, and also the four worst instructed, it will be found that the average amount of crime is almost exactly in the INVERSE ratio of the average amount of instruction.

The *four best instructed counties in England*, according to this table, are :

		Inhabitants.			Inhabitants.
Rutland, having 1 school to ev'ry	625, & 1 crim'l. convic'n. per ann. to ev'ry				718
Westminster,	" "	696,	" "	"	2201
Cumberland,	" "	736,	" "	"	1101
Middlesex,	" "	747,	" "	"	415

Or an average of one school to every 701 inhabitants, and one criminal conviction to 1108 inhabitants.

The four *worst instructed* counties are :

		Inhabitants.			Inhabitants.
Northampton, 1 school to ev'ry	1757, & 1 crim'l. conviction per ann. to ev'ry				601
Dorset,	" "	1435,	" "	"	610
Somerset,	" "	1427,	" "	"	393
Hereford,	" "	1386,	" "	"	596

Or an average of one school to every 1501 inhabitants, and one criminal conviction to 550 inhabitants.

It is with grief, that I contemplate the mistaken zeal, the illogical reasoning of certain philanthropists, and even of certain governments, who bestow so much pains upon prisons, and neglect schools: they allow crime to spring up, and vicious habits to take root, by the utter neglect of all moral training, and of all education in children; and when crime is grown, and is strong and full of life, they attempt to cope with it; they try to subdue it with the terror of punishment, or to mitigate it, in some degree, by gentleness and kindness. After having exhausted all their resources both of thought and of money, they are astonished to find that their efforts are vain; and why? because all they do is in direct opposition to common sense. To correct is very important, but to prevent is far more so. The seeds of morality and piety must be early sown in the heart of the child, in order that they may be found again, and be made to shoot forth in the breast of the man whom adverse circumstances may have brought under the avenging hand of the law. *To educate the people, is the necessary foundation of all good prison discipline.* It is not the purpose of a penitentiary to change monsters into men, but to revive, in the breasts of those who have gone astray, the principles which were taught and inculcated to them in their youth, and which they acknowledged and carried into practice in former days, in schools of their infancy, before passion, and wretchedness, and bad example, and the evil chances of life, had hurried them away from the paths of rectitude.—*Cousin's Report on Education in Holland.*

The Rev. Dr. Forde, for many years the Ordinary of Newgate, London, represents *ignorance*, as the first great cause, and *idleness*, as the second, of all the crimes committed by the inmates of that celebrated prison.

Sir Richard Phillips, sheriff of London, says, that on the memorial addressed to the sheriffs by 152 criminals in Newgate, 25 only signed their names in a fair hand, 26 in an illegible scrawl, 101 were *marksmen*, signing with a cross. Few of the prisoners could read with facility, more than half could not read at all, most of them thought books useless, and were totally ignorant of the nature, object, and end of religion.

The Rev. Mr. Clay, chaplain to the house of Correction, in Lancashire, represents that out of 1129 persons committed, 554 could not read; 222, were barely capable of reading; 38, only could read well; and only 8, could read and write well.

Out of the 1129 prisoners, 516 were quite ignorant of the simplest truths; 995 were capable of repeating the Lord's Prayer; 37 were occasionally readers of the Bible; and 1 was familiar with the Holy Scriptures, and conversant with the principles of religion.

Among the 516 persons entirely ignorant, 125 were incapable of repeating the Lord's Prayer.

The Chaplain of the county gaol in Warwick reports of the prisoners in 1836:—Their condition as regards education is this; of every twenty-four who are committed, on an average seven have been taught to read and write; eight can read only; and nine can do neither; most of those who can write can read tolerably well, though their writing is generally a very poor performance; but at least the half of those who can read only, do it very badly. With regard to those important parts of education, religion and morality, generally speaking, no instruction whatever appears to have been given to them; for in the vast majority of instances, the persons who come to prison are utterly ignorant, both of the simplest truths of religion and of the plainest precepts of morality. Further, it seldom happens that any effort has been made to bring the reasoning faculties into healthy exercise; and the mind, being thus left blank, as far as regards every thing that is good, it ceases to be a wonder that evil principles should so readily be adopted.

Out of 138 prisoners (participators in the agricultural riots of 1831,) committed to Reading gaol, 25 only could write, 37 only could read, and 76 could neither read nor write; 120 were under 40 years of age, varying from 35 down to 18 years. Of the 30 prisoners tried at Abingdon, 6 only could read and write, 11 could imperfectly; the remainder were wholly uneducated. Of the 79 prisoners convicted at Aylesbury, only 30 could read and write. Of 332 committed for trial at Winchester, 105 could neither read nor write; nearly the whole number were deplorably ignorant of even the rudiments of religious knowledge. About one half of the prisoners committed to Maidstone gaol, could neither read nor write.

Out of the whole number of commitments (23,612) in England and Wales as returned to the Home Department in 1837, 8,464 were unable to read or write well, and only 101 had received a superior education. Of all the criminal offenders, one half of one per cent. had received any education beyond mere reading and writing. Out of the whole number, 358 were under 12 years of age, and were totally uninstructed.—*Barnard's Report*, 1842.

It is alleged, however, that, notwithstanding the progress of education, crime and immorality increase. If the present be compared with any distant era of history, even the most brilliant, it will be found that the very reverse is true. In the reign of Elizabeth, for instance, of which Hume boasts that "learning had not then prostituted itself by becoming too common," England was covered with gipsies and banditti, and every year, there were from three to four hundred executions for capital crimes. In Scotland, before the parochial schools were established, and education made universal, two hundred thousand vagrants, according to Fletcher of Saltoun, roamed over the land, living by pillage and beggary, and having "no regard or subjection either to the laws of the land, or even to those of God and Nature." What a change has since been wrought! and who can doubt that, in producing it, education has been a most powerful, though certainly not the only cause? It is not to be forgotten, that the causes which affect social welfare are various, and hence crime may for awhile increase, and civilization decline, even though education does advance; not, however, because education is powerless, but because its influence is, for the time, overborne or counteracted by other agencies.

Is it a truth, however, that crime and immorality do increase? Let us con-

sider this question for a moment with regard to our own state (New York); and that we may limit the inquiry, let us speak only of crime in the technical or judicial sense. I remark, then,

First, That, so far as our own state is concerned, the returns of criminal convictions, annually made to the office of the Secretary of State, show that the increase of crimes of every description, within the last ten years, is not greater than the increase of population, even on the supposition, by no means probable, that the returns were as full and complete, when first required, ten years since, as they are at present.*

Secondly, This increase of crime would have been much less, but for the unusual influx of foreigners within the last few years. Dr. Julius states, as the result of a laborious examination of all the principal prisons of the U. States, that about *one third* of the convicts are foreigners. The returns of this state show that, wish us, the proportion is even larger, being in some years nearly *one half*.

Thirdly, Before this increase of crime could, under any circumstances, be ascribed with plausibility to an increase of education, for this is gravely maintained by some persons, it would be necessary to show that those offences have multiplied fastest which, in their conception and preparation, require the greatest knowledge and forethought. The facts, however, are remarkably the reverse. In this state, as appears by a late annual report (for 1840) of the Secretary of State on criminal convictions, the crimes of forgery, perjury, burglary, &c., which imply skill and knowledge, have been diminishing, while those which are the usual concomitants of ignorance and mental debasement have increased. To the same effect is the experience of other states. Says the chaplain of the Connecticut State Prison, in a late report, "that knowledge is not very frequently used as an instrument in the commission of crime, may be presumed from the fact that, of the 66 committed to this prison last year, the crimes of only four were of such a nature as to require for their commission ability either to read or write." The directors of the Ohio Penitentiary state that "it is an erroneous impression that the convicts are intelligent, shrewd men, whose minds have been perverted to vice, rather than blunderers into low and vicious habits, and ultimately into the commission of crime, from idleness, ignorance, and obtuseness of mental vision. It will be seen that nearly the whole number of convicts are below mediocrity in point of information; and, indeed, our inquiries and observations have long since fully satisfied us that, not only in our own prisons, but in others which we have visited or inquired after, depraved appetites and corrupt habits, which have led to the commission of crime, are usually found with the ignorant, uninformed, and duller part of mankind. Of the 276, nearly all below mediocrity, 175 are grossly ignorant, and in point of education scarcely capable of transacting the ordinary business of life." Is it not a question for grave reflection, how far society, after thus suffering individuals to grow up in ignorance and incapacity, retains, in respect to them, the right of inflicting punishment?

Fourthly, To show, however, still more clearly that education, instead o being responsible for any portion of this increase of crime, is directly and greatly calculated to arrest it, I would place in juxtaposition, and ask attention to two facts, which seem to me alike conclusive and striking.

I. It appears by the late census, that there are but 43,000 white adults in this state, who are unable to read and write. If to this number, we add one half of the whole colored population of the state as suffering from a like inability, and make a large allowance for children old enough to commit crime, yet without education, we shall get a total of about 83,000; i. e., about 1 2-9th of the whole population of the state, who cannot read and write. If, then, education has no tendency to diminish crime, so that a person, after having enjoyed its advantages, is as likely to commit crime as the ignorant, we should expect, on examining the records of our courts and prisons, to find the same proportion between the instructed and uninstructed among the convicts, as

among the whole population. In other words, we should expect to find 28 convicts able to read and write to every *one* unable to do so. Now what is the fact?

II. If we take the whole number of convictions in this state for the last two years, in courts of record and at special sessions, we find not 1 in 29 who is unable to read, but 1 in 2; showing that the tendency to crime among the ignorant is fourteen and a half times greater than it ought to be, on the supposition that education has no tendency to diminish crime. An examination of the Auburn prison, made something more than a year ago, gave, out of 244 prisoners, but 59 who could read well, and but 39 who could read and write.

In the New Penitentiary of Philadelphia, out of 217 prisoners received during the year 1835, but 85 could read and write, and most of these could do either the one or the other in but a very imperfect manner. Facts of this kind might be adduced to almost any extent. By showing that the proportion of uneducated convicts is much greater than that of uneducated inhabitants, they seem to me to *demonstrate* that ignorance is one of the great highways to crime, and that, in proportion as men are left without instruction, in that proportion they are likely to become convicts.

In dismissing this subject, I ought, perhaps, to refer to a statement, made a few years since by a distinguished French writer (M. Guerry), which seems to militate seriously against the views here taken, and which is frequently adduced, as proof that education is powerless in preventing, if it be not efficient in producing crime. It was alleged by M. Guerry, after an elaborate survey of the "moral statistics" of France, that there was more crime in the best instructed than in the worst instructed provinces of the kingdom. Admitting the fact to be as stated, and admitting, also, that education was the cause of this increase of crime, it must be obvious to every one bestowing a moment's reflection on the subject, that the true explanation is to be found in the absence, until recently, from French systems of instruction, of a moral and religious spirit.

It has been ascertained, however, on a more thorough examination, that it did not hold, as a general fact, that crime was more prevalent in the better instructed provinces; and, moreover, that, if such were the fact, it was susceptible of demonstration that education was not to be held responsible for it. From a paper read a few years since before the Statistical Society of London, by G. R. Porter, Esq., it appears that the conclusions of M. Guerry were based upon *the returns of a single year*, whereas five years taken in succession would furnish a result entirely different. The returns for the five years ending 1833 show, that the annual average number of criminals was nearly ten per cent. greater in the least instructed, than it was in the most instructed departments; and it so happens that the year (1831) taken by M. Guerry for examination, was the only one of the five, in which the excess of criminals was not arranged on the side of the least instructed departments. It is farther to be considered—and this, indeed, is the all-essential point—that an excess of crime, in the best instructed provinces in 1831, proves nothing against education, unless it can be shown, that the criminals themselves were educated. But it turns out on examination, that $\frac{7}{8}$ths of the whole number were unable to read and write well, and that the *proportion of ignorant criminals, as compared with the whole number of uninstructed inhabitants*, was even greater in the more enlightened provinces than elsewhere. The reason for the latter fact probably is, that where education is pretty generally imparted, the wholly ignorant find themselves more embarrassed in obtaining employment, and hence are more likely to betake themselves to lawless courses.—*Prof. Potter's School and Schoolmaster.*

* It ought to be considered, also, that in proportion as the detection and punishment of offences is facilitated by an improved police, and by a better state of public morals, in that proportion criminal arrests and convictions may become more numerous, though crime itself is decreasing.

SCHOOL-HOUSES.

Abridged from "School-Architecture by Henry Barnard," published by Case, Tiffany & Burnham, Hartford, Conn.

I. COMMON ERRORS IN SCHOOL-HOUSES AS THEY ARE.

They are, almost universally, badly located, exposed to the noise, dust and danger of the highway, unattractive, if not positively repulsive in their external and internal appearance, and built at the least possible expense of material and labor.

They are too small. There is no separate entry for boys and girls appropriately fitted up, no sufficient space for the convenient seating and necessary movements of the scholars; no platform, desk, or recitation room for the teacher.

They are badly lighted. The windows are inserted on three or four sides of the room, without blinds or curtains to prevent the inconvenience and danger from cross-lights, and the excess of light falling directly on the eyes or reflected from the book, and the distracting influence of passing objects and events out of doors.

They are not properly ventilated. The purity of the atmosphere is not preserved by providing for the escape of such portions of the air as have become offensive and poisonous by the process of breathing, and by the matter which is constantly escaping from the lungs in vapor, and from the surface of the body in insensible perspiration.

They are imperfectly warmed. The rush of cold air through cracks and defects in the doors, windows, floor and plastering is not guarded against. The air which is heated is already impure from having been breathed, and made more so by noxious gases arising from the burning of floating particles of vegetable and animal matter coming in contact with the hot iron. The heat is not equally diffused, so that one portion of a school-room is frequently overheated, while another portion, especially the floor, is too cold.

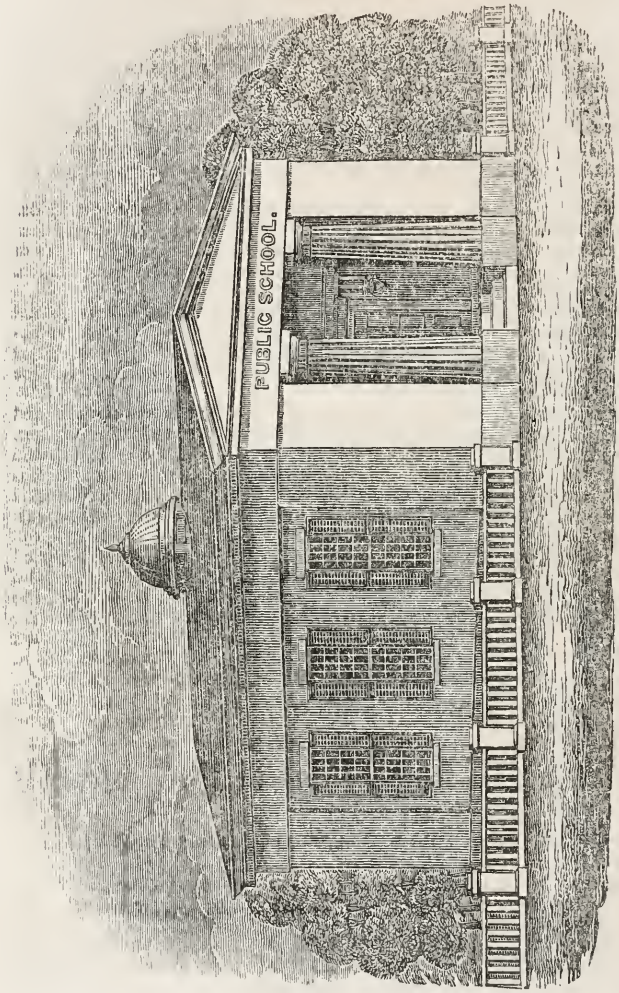
They are not furnished with seats and desks, properly made and adjusted to each other, and arranged in such a manner as to promote the comfort and convenience of the scholars, and the easy supervision on the part of the teacher. The seats are too high and too long, with no suitable support for the back, and especially for the younger children. The desks are too high for the seats, and are either attached to the wall on three sides of the room, so that the faces of the scholars are turned from the teacher, and a portion of them at least are tempted constantly to look out at the windows,—or the seats are attached to the wall on opposite sides, and the scholars sit facing each other. The aisles are not so arranged that each scholar can go to and from his seat, change his position, have access to his books, attend to his own business, be seen and approached by the teacher, without incommoding any other.

They are not provided with blackboards, maps, clock, thermometer, and other apparatus and fixtures which are indispensable to a well regulated and instructed school.

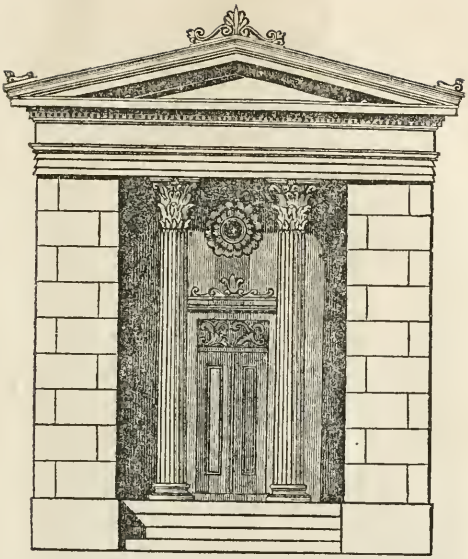
They are deficient in all of those in and out-door arrangements which help to promote habits of order, and neatness, and cultivate delicacy of manners and refinement of feeling. There are no verdure, trees, shrubbery and flowers for the eye, no scrapers and mats for the feet, no hooks and shelves for cloaks and hats, no well, no sink, basin and towels to secure cleanliness, and no places of retirement for children of either sex.

II. PLANS AND DIRECTIONS FOR THE LOCATION, CONSTRUCTION AND INTERNAL ARRANGEMENTS OF SCHOOL-HOUSES.

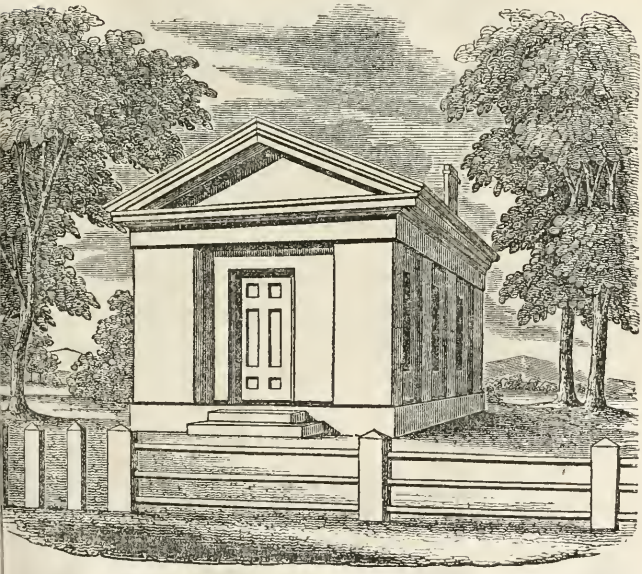
Location—style—yards, &c. The following views, exhibiting the external appearance of several new school-houses, are intended for country districts, or primary schools in villages and cities.



Primary School, Whiting-street, New-Haven.



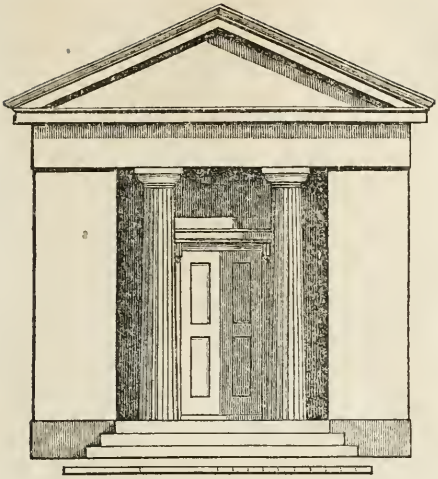
Front Elevation of a Village School, with two departments.



School House, District Number 6, Windsor, Conn.

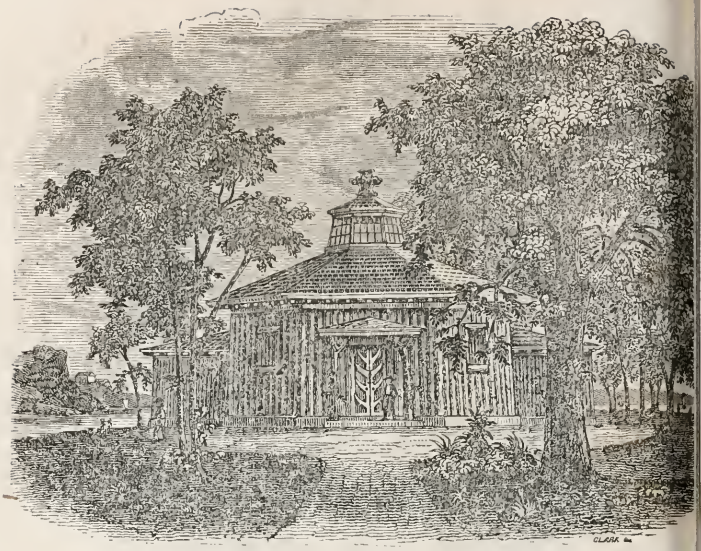
Primary School, Providence, R. I.

Side View of Clinton-street Primary School House, Hartford, Conn.



Front Elevation of a District School House, Hartford, Conn

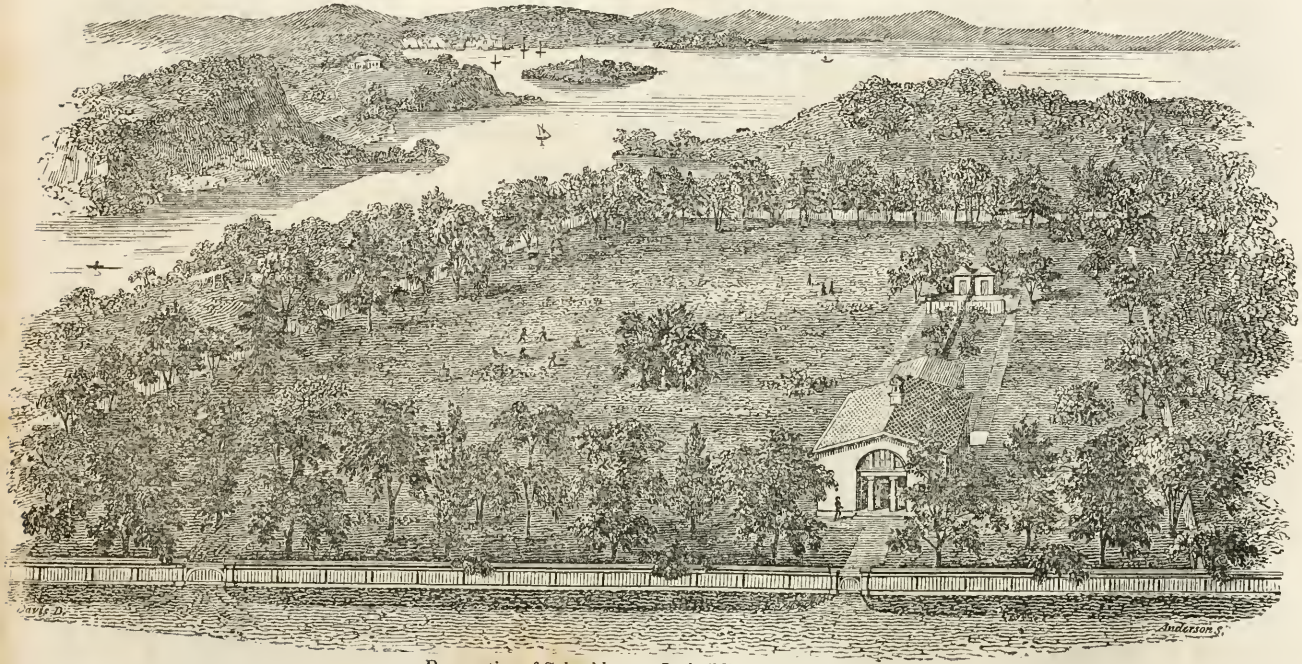




Plan of an Octagonal School-House, by Town & Davis, New-York.

[*For description of this and the following cut, see School and School Master, p.* 548, *and School Architecture, p.* 35.]

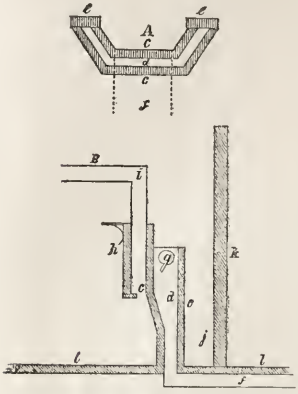




Perspective of School-house, Outbuildings, and Grounds

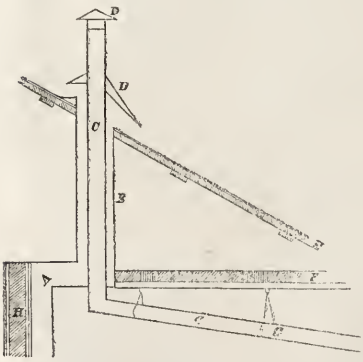
WARMING AND VENTILATION. The means of producing, diffusing and duly regulating artificial heat in a climate like ours, and of renewing the vital portions of the atmosphere which are constantly absorbed, and of removing the impurities which are at the same time generated by the breathing of teacher and pupils, and by burning fires and lights, must be provided in school-rooms, as indispensable conditions of health, comfort and successful labor.

In a suitable position near the door let a common brick fireplace, as shown in the horizontal (A) and perpendicular (B) section, be built. Let this be inclosed on the back and on each side, by a casing of brick (*c*) four inches thick, leaving between the fireplace and the casing, a space (*d*) for air of four or five inches, which will be heated through the back and jambs. Into this space let the air be admitted from beneath by a box (*f*) 24 inches wide and 6 or 8 deep, leading from the external atmosphere by an opening beneath the front door or some other convenient place. The brick casing should be continued up as high as six or eight inches above the top of the fireplace when it may open into the room by lateral orifices, (*g*) to be commanded by iron doors, through which the heated air will enter the room. If these are lower, part of the warm air will find its way into the fireplace. The brick chimney should rise at least two or three feet above the hollow back, and may be surmounted by a flat iron, soap-stone, or brick top, with an opening for a smokepipe, (*i*) which may be thence conducted to any part of the room. The smokepipe should rise a foot, then pass to one side, and then, over a passage, to the opposite extremity of the room, where it should ascend perpendicularly and issue above the roof. The fireplace should be provided with iron doors, by which it may be completely closed.



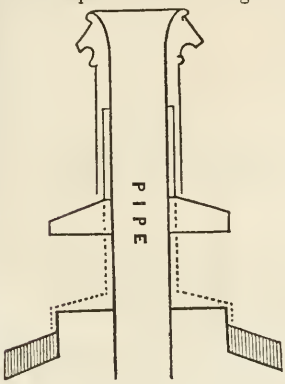
c. Solid front of masonry. *h*. Front of fireplace and mantel piece. *k*. Partition wall. *l*. Floor.

The escape of the heated foul air of a school-room may be promoted, by having an air box (A) 1 foot square or 24 inches by 6, covered by the pilaster, and opening at the floor, in the base of the pilaster. Let this air box (A) be continued into a tin or iron tube (B) 15½ inches in diameter through the roof (E) up the side of the house into the open air, and through this tube the smoke pipe (C) should pass also above the roof. Attached to the pipe should be caps (D) to keep out the rain. This ventilator will always act when the pipe is warm, as there will be an upward current in the air box, to supply the partial vacuum occasioned by the escape of the heated air around the stove pipe.



The advantages of this double fire-place are, 1. the fire, being made against brick, imparts to the air of the apartment none of the deleterious qualities which are produced by a common iron stove, but gives the pleasant heat of an open fireplace; 2. none of the heat of the fuel will be lost, as the

smoke-pipe may be extended far enough to communicate nearly all the heat contained in the smoke; 3. the current of air heated within the hollow back, and constantly pouring into the room, will diffuse an equable heat throughout every part; 4. the pressure of the air of the room will be constantly outward, little cold will enter by cracks and windows, and the fireplace will have no tendency to smoke; 5. by means of the iron doors, the fire may be completely controlled, increased or diminished at pleasure, with the advantages of an air tight stove. For that purpose, there must be a valve or slide near the bottom of one of the doors.



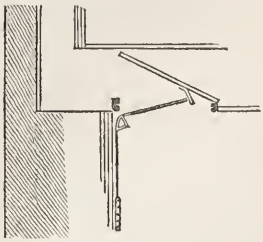
In the plan of an "Octagonal School-house" drawn by Town and Davis, New York, the room is lighted by a *lantern window* at the top of the room. The stove-pipe passes directly up through the center of the lantern, an open space is left around the pipe for the heated foul air to escape. This aperture and cap, with the ventilator, is shown by the figure adjoining, which is to a scale of half an inch to a foot. The ventilator is drawn raised, and the dotted lines show it let down upon the roof. It may be of any required size, say two feet wide and twelve inches high, sliding up and down between the stovepipe and an outward case, forming a cap to exclude water. This cap may be pushed up or let down by a rod affixed to the under edge, and lying against the smokepipe. The *lantern*, in the opinion of the eminent architects named, secures the three great objects of uniform light, temperature and ventilation.

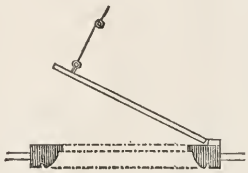
The best mode, however, at the same time of warming and ventilating a school-room, especially if it is large, is by pure air heated in a stove or furnace placed in the cellar or a room lower than the one to be warmed. No portion of the room, or the movements of the scholars, or the supervision of the teacher, are encumbered or interrupted by stove or pipe. The fire in such places can be maintained without noise and without throwing dust or smoke into the room. The offensive odors and impurities of burnt air, or rather of particles of vegetable or animal matter floating in the air, are not experienced. The heat can be conducted into the room at different points, and is thus diffused so as to secure a uniform summer temperature in every part of it. A room thus heated, even without any special arrangements for this object, will be tolerably well ventilated, for the constant influx of warm pure air into the room will force that which is already in it out at every crack and crevice, and thus reverse the process which is ordinarily going on in every school-room. By an opening or rather several small openings into the ceiling, or a flue, which in either case should connect with the outer air, the escape of the impure air will be more effectually secured.

There should be one or more openings, expressly for ventilation, both at the top and the bottom of the room, of not less than twelve inches square, capable of being wholly or partially closed by a slide of wood or metal, and, if possible, these openings, or the receptacle into which they discharge, should be connected with the chimney or smoke-flue, in which there is already a column of heated air. By an opening in or near the ceiling, the warmer impurities (and air when heated, and especially when over-heated, will retain noxious gases longer) will pass off. By an opening *near the floor*, into the smoke-flue, the colder impurities (and carbonic acid, and the other noxious gases, which at first rise, soon diffuse themselves through the atmosphere, cool, and subside towards the floor) will be drawn in to supply the

current of heated air and smoke ascending the chimney. These openings, however, may let cold air in, and will not always secure the proper ventilation of a school-room, unless there is a current of pure warm air flowing in at the same time. Whenever there is such a current there will be a greater economy, as well as a more rapid and uniform diffusion of the heat, by inserting the outlet for the vitiated air near the floor, and at the greatest distance from the inlet of warm air.

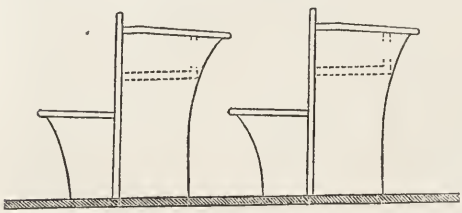
The Grammar and High Schools in Providence are warmed by furnaces in the cellar. The lower school-rooms and the recitation rooms are ventilated by an opening near the top of the room into a flue carried up in the wall, to the



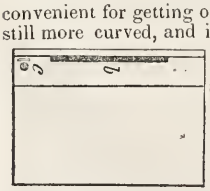


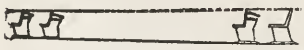
attic, as shown in the drawings: and the upper rooms by two openings at the top of the arch, directly into the attic. There is a round window at each end of the attic, made to swivel, with a line attached, which descends into one of the recitation rooms.

Seats and Desks. The seats and desks should he adapted to each other—should be made for pupils of different sizes—should be easy of access and should be arranged so as to admit of the constant superintendence of the teacher.

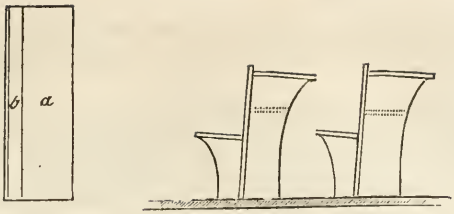


No. 1 represents a section of seat and desk for one pupil—the front of the desk slopes 2¼ inches in 16, and constitutes the back of the preceding seat. The seat inclines a little from the edge. The desk is two feet long by eighteen inches wide, three inches of which is level, and the remaining part is inclined one inch to the foot. The edge of the desk and the seat is in the same perpendicular line. There is a shelf for books one foot wide. The ends of the desks are curved so as to be convenient for getting out and in the seat, and for sweeping. They might be still more curved, and iron supporters would be still better, as occupying less space. The level portion of the desk has a groove (*a*) running along the line of the slope, to prevent pencils and pens from rolling off; an opening on the back side (*b*) to receive a slate, with which every desk should be furnished as a part of the furniture of the school-room; and an opening (*c*) to receive an inkstand, which is covered by a metallic lid.

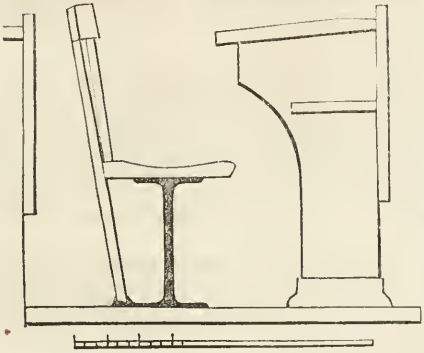




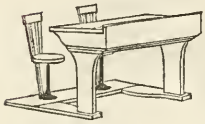
The seats and desks should vary in height, the former from 9 or 10 inches to 16 or 17, and the latter, from 23 to 29 inches. The youngest pupils being seated nearest to the teacher's desk.



Number 2 represents a seat and desk for two pupils, but nearly similar to Number 1. The Primary and Intermediate schools, Providence, are furnished with such.



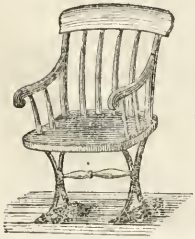
Number 3 represents a section of chair and desk us d in the Providence Grammar Schools. The chair is on an iron pedestal and is attached to the floor by four screws. This chair can be furnished by the makers in Providence, in quantities to fit up a schoolroom, from $1 to 1,25.



Number 4 represents a modification of the above as used in the High Schools. The desk and seat are attached to a platform which is movable.



Number 5 represents one of "Kimball's Improved School Chair," used in the High Schools of Salem, and in many of the district schools in the neighborhood. The supporters are of cast iron, and when screwed to the floor are perfectly firm.

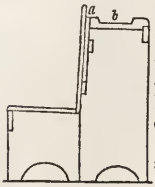


Number 6 represents a modification of the above chair for Primary Schools.

Number 7 represents a modification of the plan of a seat and desk for two, so as to economize the room, secure great firmness to the desk, and separate the pupils as effectually as an aisle of the ordinary width. Each range of desks



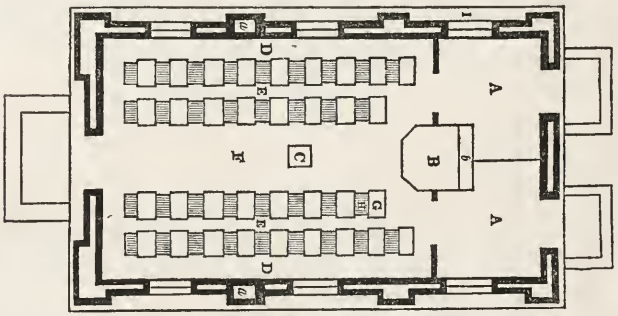
is divided by a partition extending from the floor to four inches above the surface of the dusk. The seat can be attached to the desk as in Number 1 and 2, or a chair can be used as represented above.



To accommodate two of the larger pupils in winter, a desk like a table leaf can be attached to the highest end of each range, (*c*) and to accommodate the same number of smaller children in summer, movable sand desks can be placed at the lowest end. (*d*) The sand desk has an opening (*a*) to receive a slate, and a groove (*b*) to receive a thin layer of sand, if it should be thought desirable to use sand, before using the slate, as is done in the New York Primary Schools.

Plans for the internal arrangement of School-houses. The following plans exhibit a variety of modes for arranging the entries, the seats and desks of the pupils, the aisles, the platform of the teacher, the area for recitation, the stove, and other details of the interior of a school-house. They will afford useful hints to committees and architects.

Fig. 1. Plan of School-Room, District No. 6, Windsor, Ct

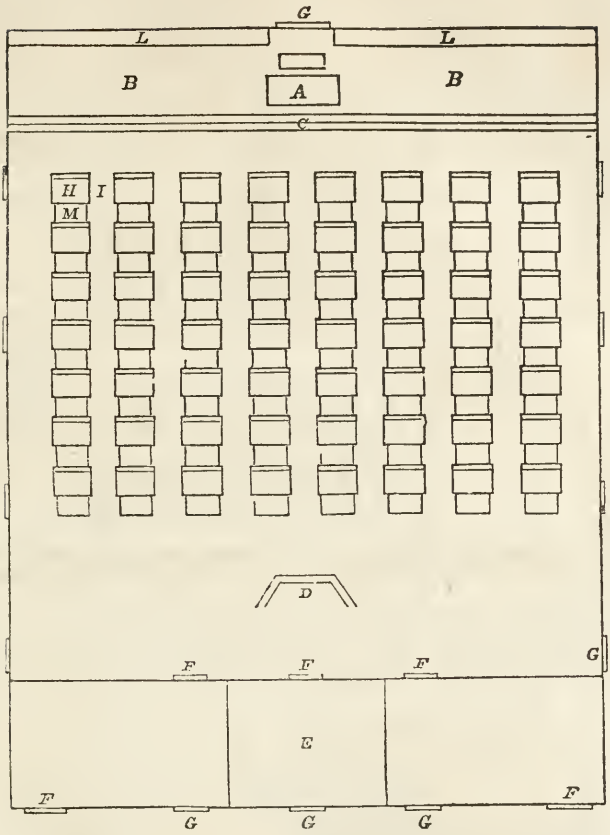


The building is 33 feet 6 inches long, 21 feet 8 inches wide.

The school-room is 24 feet 5 inches long, by 19 feet 4 inches wide, and 15 feet 6 inches high in the clear, and was intended for a school of 36 pupils, but will accommodate eight or ten more on moveable seats.

A A. Entries 7 ft. 3 inches by 9 ft. 3 inches in the rear of the building; one for boys and the other for girls; each supplied with scraper, mats, shelves and hooks for hats and outer garments. B. Teacher's platform, 5 feet 2 inches wide, by 6 feet deep. *b.* Shelves for books, in front of which is a movable blackboard 5 feet by 4, suspended on weights, and steadied by a groove on each side, so as to admit of being raised and lowered by the teacher. D D. Passages round the room 2 feet wide. E E. Aisles 15 inches wide. E. Aisles 5 feet 3 inches wide. C. Stove. *a a.* Flues—one for smoke, and the other for ventilation. G. Desk for one pupil 2 feet long and 18 inches wide, (See p. 10.) H. Seat for one pupil varying from 9½ inches to 17½ inches.

Fig. 2. Plan of a School Room, by Horace Mann.

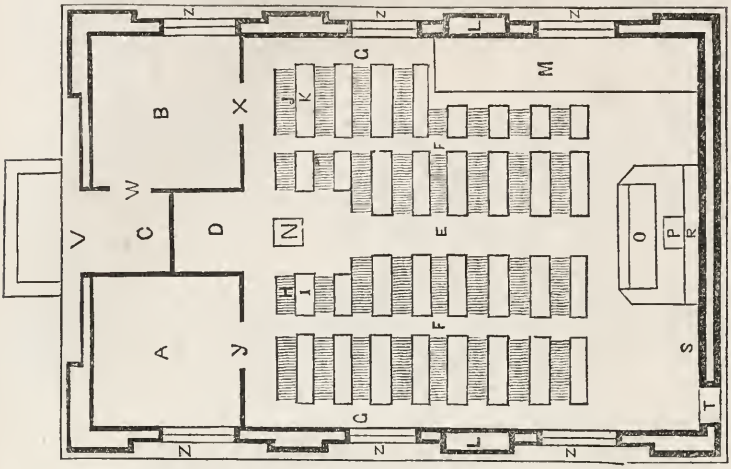


A. Represents the teacher's desk. *B B.* Teacher's platform, from 1 to 2 ft. in height. *C.* Step for ascending the platform. *L L.* Cases for books, aparatus, cabinet, &c. *H.* Pupils' single desks, 2 ft. by 18 inches. *M.* Pupils' seat, 1 ft. by 20 inches. *I.* Aisles, 1 ft. 6 inches in width. *D.* Place for stove, if one be used. *E.* Room for recitation, for retiring in case of sudden indisposition, for interview with parents, when necessary, &c. It may also be used for the library, &c. *F F F F F F.* Doors into the boys' and girls' entries—from the entries into the school-room, and from the school-room into the recitation room. *G G G G.* Windows. The windows on the sides are not lettered.

The seats and desks recommended, are similar to No. 1 or No. 2, on page 10.

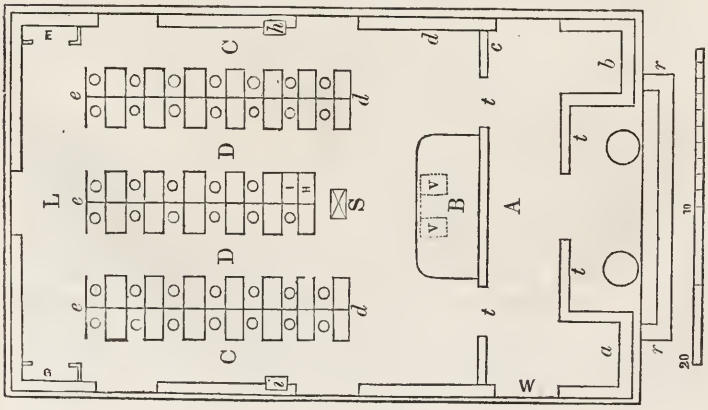
Fig. 3. Plan of School-Room for 56 Pupils, by F. Dwight.

The building is 36 ft. long by 26 wide, and 19 ft. high from the ground to the eaves, including 2 ft. base. V. Main entrance. C. Outer entry. W. Door leading into clothes entry B. X. Door into school-room 24 ft. by 24, and 15 ft. high in the clear. N. Stove. D. Recess for wood. Y. Door to recitation and library room A. M. Platform for recitation. O. Teacher's desk. P. His seat, and R. shelves for his books, &c. S. Map of the World, and on the



opposite side of teacher, a blackboard. E. Center aisle 2 ft. wide. F F. Division aisle, 18 inches, and G G side aisles, 20 inches. K. Desk for two pupils, 4 ft. long by 18 inches wide. J. Seat for two, 12 inches wide, and varying from 9½ inches to 16 high. H I. Seat and desk for one pupil. Z. Windows three on each side. L L. Ventilation and smoke flue.

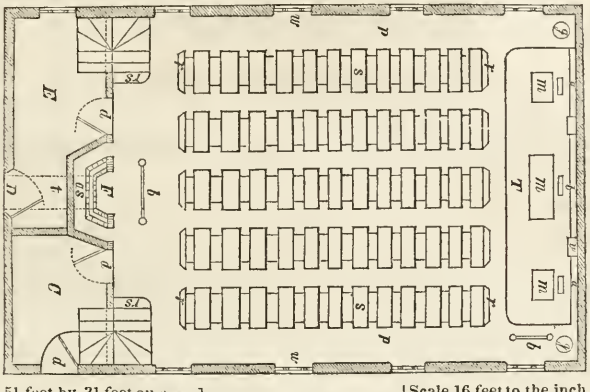
Fig. 4. Plan of School-Room for 60 Pupils, Hartford.



The exterior dimensions are 40 ft. by 26 ft., and the school-room exclusive of the recess for the pillars, and the entry is 30 ft. by 25.

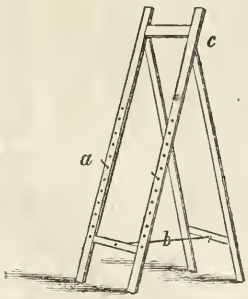
A. Entry, on one side of which (*a*) is fitted up for girls, and the other (*b*) for boys. B. Teacher's platform, 9 ft. long by 4 ft. 6 inches wide, and 9 inches high, with a blackboard occupying the wall behind. V V. Teacher's desk. C C. Side aisles 3 ft. wide. L. Rear aisles 4 ft. wide. D D. Aisles each 2 ft. 7 inches. S. Stove. H. Desk. (See page 9, No. 7.) I. Chair. (See p. 11, No. 3. *d*. Sand desk. (See p. 12, No. 7.) *e*. Leaf, &c. (See p. 12, Fig. 7.) *i*. Smoke flue. *h*. Ventilating flue with opening at top and bottom. W W. Seven windows. *r r*. Scrapers for feet. *t t t t*. Mats. *c*. Sink for water pail, basin &c. E. Closet for library of 600 vols. G. Closet for apparatus &c.

Fig. 5. Plan of School-Room for 120 Pupils, by G. B. Emerson



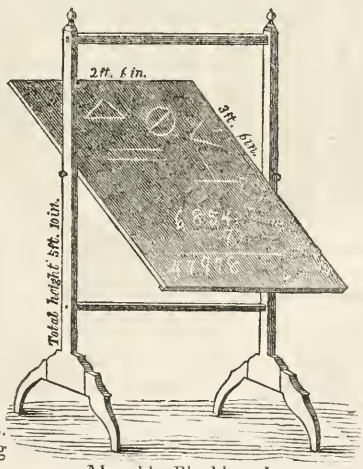
51 feet by 31 feet ou s [Scale 16 feet to the inch.

D. Entrance door. E. Entry. F. Fireplace. C. Wood closet. T. Teacher's platform. *a*. Apparatus shelves. *t*. Air tube beneath the floor. *d*. Doors. *g*. Globes. *l*. Library shelves. *m*. Master's table and seat. *p*. Passages. *r* Recitation seats. *s*. Scholar's desks and seats. *r s*. Stairs to recitation room in the attic. *v*. Ventilator. *w*. Windows. *b*. Movable blackboard. *as*. A space behind the fireplace.



Movable Stand for Blackboard.

a Pins on which the board rests. *c*. Hinge or joint to the supporting legs which are traced by hook *b*.



Movable Blackboard.

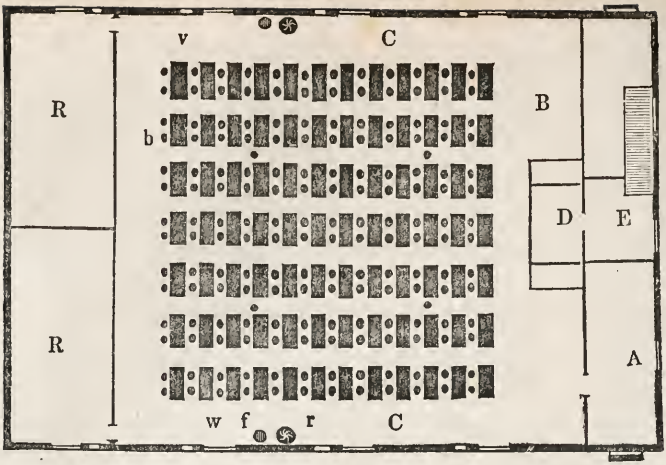


Fig. 6. Plan of Male Department, Middletown High School.

The building is 72 ft. by 54. Male department 50 ft. by 47, with two recitation rooms R R each 25 ft. by 12. There are seven ranges of desks, each accommodating ten pupils, and all facing the teacher's platform D. Each range is separated from the other by an aisle 18 inches wide, and the whole surrounded by an open space C C six ft. wide. There are eight flues for ventilation, opening from the top and bottom of the room, and discharging into the attic above. The whole building is heated by the furnace in the cellar.

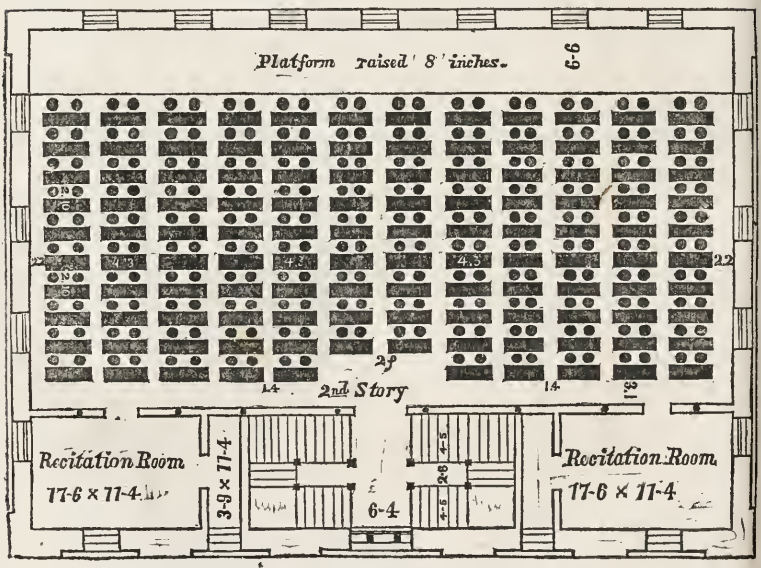


Fig. 7. Plan of second floor Brimmer School, Boston.

The pupils, (236) each accommodated with a chair, (Wales' Patent School Chair) sit with their backs to the teacher's platform.

AIDS

TO

ENGLISH COMPOSITION.

[Entered, according to Act of Congress, in the year 1845, by Harper & Brothers, in the Clerk's Office of the District Court of the Southern District of New-York.]

The following sections are taken, with the consent of the Author, from a work of 428 pages under the above title, by Richard Green Parker: a volume which should be in the hands of every teacher, and every student of the English language.—*Editor of Journal of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction.*

I.

OBJECTS AND THEIR PARTS.

The first step to be taken in writing composition is to obtain ideas. The second is the proper expression of the idea when obtained. To acquire ideas, it is necessary to cultivate habits of observation; to use the eyes not only in noticing entire objects, but also their different parts; to consider their qualities, uses, operations, and effects; together with their relation to other things. The mind employed in such processes acquires materials for its own operations, and thoughts and ideas arise as it were spontaneously.

For the first exercise in composition, therefore, it is proposed that the student be required to enumerate the parts of some visible object, according to the following

Example.

A HOUSE.

Its parts are

The inside,	The wainscot,	The parlors or drawing rooms,
The outside,	The stairs,	The wash room,
The doors,	The fire places,	The bathing room,
The entry,	The mantel,	The inner doors,
The rooms,	The chimney,	The wood shed,
The ceiling,	The closets,	The out buildings.
The walls,	The kitchen,	

Exercises.

In a similar manner enumerate the parts of the following objects:

A carriage.	A sheep.	A book.
A ship.	A cat.	A kite.
A church.	A landscape.	A cow.
A tree.	A school-room.	A goat.
A map.	A watch.	A dog.
A horse.	A clock.	A picture.

II.

OBJECTS, THEIR QUALITIES AND USES.

The parts of a visible object having been noticed, the next step to be taken is the enumeration of its qualities and uses; according to the following

Example.

GLASS: It is hard, inodorous, insoluble,
solid, colorless, dry,
smooth, heavy, fusible,
bright, uninflammable, thick or thin,
transparent, durable, long,
brittle, stiff, short,
cold, inflexible, wide,
tasteless, water proof, useful.

Its uses:

For windows to admit light:
For spectacles to assist sight:
For useful vessels, such as tumblers, pitchers, decanters, wine-glasses, jelly-glasses, bottles, phials, inkstands, lamps, and lamp-glasses, chandeliers, handles of doors and drawers, vases, cups, and ornaments, such as beads, drops, prisms, &c.

Exercises.

In the same manner enumerate the qualities of the following objects:

Wood.	Sugar.	A lamp.
Iron.	Salt.	Ivory.
Lead.	Sponge.	A pin.
Silver.	A desk.	A chair.
Gold.	Wool.	A table.
A feather.	Cotton.	A penknife.
A pen.	Wax.	A quill.
Water.	Whalebone.	An inkstand.
Leather.	A horn.	Ice.
Paper.	Chalk.	Snow.

III.

OBJECTS, THEIR PARTS, QUALITIES, PROPERTIES, USES, AND APPENDAGES.

The parts, properties, and uses of visible objects having now been considered, the two processes may be united, in the consideration of the parts, qualities, properties, uses and appendages, as in the following

Example.

A PEN consists of the	quill,	pith,	surfaces,
	shaft,	nib,	groove,
	feather,	shoulders,	inside, and
	laminæ,	skin,	outside.
Qualities. The quill is	transparent,	smooth,	elastic,
	round or	bright,	yellowish,
	cylindrical,	hard,	horny,
	hollow,	glossy,	tough.
The shaft is	opake,	white,	hard,
	angular,	stiff,	grooved.
The pith is	white,	porous,	soft,
	spongy,	elastic,	light.

The use of the pen is to write down what we have seen, read, or thought, and thereby to preserve what would probably soon be lost, if intrusted to the memory alone. What is once written can be read, or preserved for future information, and thereby we can learn what our friends who are absent, and even those who are dead, have seen or said.

Exercises.

Enumerate the parts, qualities, and uses of the following objects

A book.	A work-box.	A knife.
A house.	A saw.	A wing.
A tree.	A chisel.	A fin.
A table.	A plane.	The hand.
A bureau.	A ball.	The arm.
The contents of a box.	A kite.	The foot.
A secretary.	A dressing-case.	The eye.
A plate.	A sofa.	The ear.
A barrel.	A chair.	The nose.
A lamp.	A lock.	The mouth.
A candlestick.	A key.	The human face

IV.

EVENTS.

The object of this lesson is to teach the learner to describe, in easy sentences, any circumstances which happen to himself and others.

He should be directed to write the incident just as he would relate it to his parents or a young friend; and after he has thus written it, to revise it carefully, to see whether any of his words are mis-spelt, and whether he has used the very words which he intended to use.

Example.

On returning home yesterday, I saw a man severely beating a horse. I stopped a moment to ascertain the cause; and perceived that one of the wheels of the wagon had sunk deep

in the mire, and the poor animal was exerting all his strength to drag the heavy load, while the cruel driver was mercilessly beating the unfortunate creature because he could not proceed.

Exercises.

In a similar manner, the learner may describe the following events:

The meeting of a beggar in the street.
The overturn of a carriage.
The passing of a procession.
The sailing of a ship.
The catching of a fish.
The capture of a bird.
The raising of a kite.
A fire.
The raising of a building.

V.

OBJECTS AND EVENTS.

The object of this lesson is to accustom the learner to combine the results of the preceding lessons.

The same directions should be given to him as are presented in the last lesson; and it will be proper to enforce the directions with regard to the spelling, and the proper use of words, in every exercise.

Example.

As my brother was riding in the country, he saw a beautiful, large house, painted white, with green blinds. In the front of the house was a small flower-garden, and the bright tulips, all in full bloom, presented a brilliant show. The rose bushes were not yet in flower; but the lily of the valley was dropping its modest head, while it perfumed the air with its delicious fragrance. At the back of the house were a number of fruit trees, in full blossom, among which was the peach tree, with its beautiful pink flowers. Some boys were seen

clustering around a willow near the brook, busily engaged with their knives. One was cutting the small leaves and scions from a large branch, which he had just taken from the tree for a whip, while another was busily engaged in making a whistle. As my brother approached the house, the boys, mistaking him for the owner, immediately scampered away; some hiding themselves among the bushes, while the more active leaped over the high stone wall, to escape being caught. It appeared that these boys were truants from a neighboring school-house, and the little rogues were fearful, not only of being caught in trespassing upon private ground, but likewise lest they should be carried into the presence of their master, to be corrected for playing the truant.

Exercises.

In the same manner the learner may describe the following objects and events;

Boys fishing from a bridge.
Girls dressing their dolls.
A tree blown down by a tempest.
Boy driving cows or sheep to pasture.
Horses running at large.
A dog, in a state of madness, biting passengers in the street.
A lion, elephant, or tiger broken loose from its cage.
A menagerie, with the postures and employments of the wild animals.
A museum, with dancing puppets.
A public concert.
An exhibition of paintings and statuary.

VI.

NAMES.

The object of this exercise on names, is to prepare the student for a future exercise on definitions. How it is to be performed will be readily seen from the following

Examples.

What is the name which is applied to false or undeserved praise?

Answer. Flattery.

By what name do we call the delaying of that which we know cannot be finally escaped or avoided?

Answer. Procrastination.

By what name do we designate that animal which has two horns, a long tail, and cloven feet, and that affords beef, butter, and cheese?

Answer. The Cow.

By what name do we designate the restraint of appetite and passion?

Answer. Temperance.

Exercises.

What name is given to the reverence of God?

What name is applied to an effort of genius and art, producing an association of exalted and brilliant ideas in language harmoniously arranged?

A general coincident feeling between two persons?

Habitual inactivity both of mind and body?

That tranquil state of mind in which the agitations of anxiety and disappointment are no longer felt?

That state of mind which suffers no dismay from danger?

The dissolution of corporeal existence?

The resolution to persist in any undertaking that has been commenced?

The time after sunset?

That God is present every where, and that he knows all things?

A habit of being pleased?

VII.

SIMPLE DIALOGUE, OR CONVERSATION.

Young persons are seldom at a loss for topics of conversation, when left unrestrained to themselves. But as soon as they are required to write what is called a *composition*, they feel at a loss what to say. This arises from no inability to form ideas, nor from want of words to express them; but rather from a vague apprehension that something is required of them, which they have never done before; and to which they know not how to address themselves. The cultivation of the habits of observation, to which allusion has already

been made in the first exercise, will help them wholly out of the difficulty; especially, if they be informed, that the art of writing is nothing more than the art of expressing with the hand, in signs which present themselves to the eye, that, which with their voice, they convey to the ears of others. In other words, that in their early attempts at writing composition, they may write down in letters, what they would say to their companions in their common conversations.

To cultivate the habits of observation, the following dialogue, from the pen of Dr. Aikin, is presented; with the recommendation that it be read to the young student, or that he be required to read it carefully, in order that he may learn to use his eyes aright, and attentively observe what passes before them.

THE TUTOR AND HIS PUPILS.

Eyes and no Eyes; or, the Art of Seeing.

"Well, Robert, where have you been walking this afternoon?" said a tutor to one of his pupils, at the close of a holiday.

Robert. I have been to Broom-heath, and so round by the windmill upon Camp-mount, and home through the meadows by the river side.

Tutor. Well, that is a pleasant round.

Robert. I thought it very dull, Sir; I scarcely met with a single person. I would much rather have gone along the turnpike road.

Tutor. Why, if seeing men and horses was your object, you would, indeed, have been better entertained on the high-road. But did you see William?

Robert. We set out together, but he lagged behind in the lane, so I walked on and left him.

Tutor. That was a pity. He would have been company for you.

Robert. O, he is so tedious, always stopping to look at this thing and that! I would rather walk alone. I dare say he is not got home yet.

Tutor. Here he comes. Well, William, where have you been?

William. O, the pleasantest walk! I went all over Broom-heath, and so up to the mill at the top of the hill, and then down among the green meadows by the side of the river.

Tutor. Why, that is just the round Robert has been taking, and he complains of its dulness, and prefers the high-road.

William. I wonder at that. I am sure I hardly took a step that did not delight me, and I have brought home my handkerchief full of curiosities.

Tutor. Suppose, then, you give us an account of what amused you so much. I fancy it will be as new to Robert as to me.

William. I will do it readily. The lane leading to the heath, you know, is close and sandy, so I did not mind it much, but made the best of my way. However, I spied a curious thing enough in the hedge. It was an old crab-tree, out of which grew a great bunch of something green, quite different from the tree itself. Here is a branch of it.

Tutor. Ah! this is a mistletoe, a plant of great fame for the use made of it by the Druids of old in their religious rites and incantations. It bears a very slimy white berry, of which birdlime may be made, whence the Latin name, *Viscus*. It is one of those plants which do not grow in the ground by a root of their own, but fix themselves upon other plants; whence they have been humorously styled *parasitical*, as being hangers on, or dependents. It was the mistletoe of the oak that the Druids particularly honored.

William. A little farther on, I saw a green woodpecker fly to a tree and run up the trunk like a cat.

Tutor. That was to seek for insects in the bark, on which they live. They bore holes with their strong bills for that purpose, and do much damage to the trees by it.

William. What beautiful birds they are!

Tutor. Yes; they have been called, from their color and size, the English parrot.

William. When I got upon the open heath, how charming it was! The air seemed so fresh, and the prospect on every side so free and unbounded! Then it was all covered with gay flowers, many of which I had never observed before. There were at least three kinds of heath, (I have got them in my handkerchief here,) and gorse, and broom, and bell-flower, and many others of all colors, of which I will beg you presently to tell me the names.

Tutor. That I will, readily.

William. I saw, too, several birds that were new to me. There was a pretty grayish one, of the size of a lark, that was hopping about some great stones; and when he flew, he showed a great deal of white above his tail.

Tutor. That was a wheat-ear. They are reckoned very delicious birds to eat, and frequent the open downs in Sussex, and some other counties, in great numbers.

William. There was a flock of lapwings upon a marshy part of the heath, that amused me much. As I came near them, some of them kept flying round and round, just over my head, and crying *peewit* so distinctly, one might almost fancy they spoke. I thought I should have caught one of them, for he flew as if one of his wings was broken, and often tumbled close to the ground; but, as I came near, he always contrived to get away.

Tutor. Ha, ha! you were finely taken in, then! This was all an artifice of the bird's, to entice you away from its nest; for they build upon the bare ground, and their nests would easily be observed, did they not draw off the attention of intruders, by their loud cries and counterfeit lameness.

William. I wish I had known that, for he led me a long chase, often over shoes in water. However, it was the cause of my falling in with an old man and a boy, who were cutting and piling up turf for fuel; and I had a good deal of talk with them, about the manner of preparing the turf, and the price it sells at. They gave me, too, a creature I never saw before — a young viper, which they had just killed, together with its dam. I have seen several common snakes, but this is thicker in proportion, and of a darker color than they are.

Tutor. True. Vipers frequent those turfy, boggy grounds pretty much, and I have known several turf-cutters bitten by them.

William. They are very venomous, are they not?

Tutor. Enough so to make their wounds painful and dangerous, though they seldom prove fatal.

William. Well — I then took my course up to the windmill on the mount. I climbed up the steps of the mill, in order to get a better view of the country round. What an extensive prospect! I counted fifteen church steeples; and I saw several gentlemen's houses peeping out from the midst of green woods and plantations; and I could trace the windings of the river all along the low grounds, till it was lost behind a ridge of hills. But I'll tell you what I mean to do, if you will give me leave.

Tutor. What is that?

William. I will go again, and take with me Cary's country map, by which I shall probably be able to make out most of the places.

Tutor. You shall have it, and I will go with you, and take my pocket spying-glass.

William. I shall be very glad of that. Well — a thought struck me, that, as the hill is called *Camp-mount*, there might, probably, be some remains of ditches and mounds, with which I have read that camps were surrounded. And I really believe I discovered something of that sort running round one side of the mount.

Tutor. Very likely you might. I know antiquaries have described such remains as existing there, which some suppose to be Roman, others Danish. We will examine them further when we go.

William. From the hill I went straight down to the meadows below, and walked on the side of a brook that runs into the river. It was all bordered with reeds, and flags, and tall flowering plants, quite different from those I had seen on the heath. As I was getting down the bank to reach one of them, I heard something plunge into the water near me. It was a large water-rat, and I saw it swim over to the other side, and go into its hole. There were a great many dragon-flies all about the stream. I caught one of the finest, and have got him here in a leaf. But how I longed to catch a bird that I saw hovering over the water, and every now and then darting down into it! It was all over a mixture of the most beautiful green and blue, with some orange color. It was somewhat less than a thrush, and had a large head and bill, and a short tail.

Tutor. I can tell you what that bird was — a kingfisher, the celebrated halcyon of the ancients, about which so many tales are told. It lives on fish, which it catches in the manner you saw. It builds in holes in the banks; and is a shy, retired bird, never to be seen far from the stream where it inhabits.

William. I must try to get another sight at him, for I never saw a bird that pleased me so much. Well, I followed this little brook, till it entered the river, and then took the path that runs along the bank. On the opposite side, I observed several little birds running along the shore, and making a piping noise. They were brown and white and about as big as a snipe.

Tutor. I suppose they were sand-pipers, one of the numerous family of birds that get their living by wading among the shallows, and picking up worms and insects.

William. There were a great many swallows, too, sporting upon the surface of the water, that entertained me with their motions. Sometimes they dashed into the stream; sometimes they pursued one another so quickly, that the eye could scarcely follow them. In one place, where a

high, steep sand-bank rose directly above the river, I observed many of them go in and out of holes, with which the bank was bored full.

Tutor. Those were sand-martins, the smallest of our four species of swallows. They are of a mouse-color above, and white beneath. They make their nests and bring up their young in these holes, which run a great depth, and by their situation are secure from all plunderers.

William. A little farther, I saw a man in a boat, who was catching eels in an odd way. He had a long pole with broad iron prongs at the end, just like Neptune's trident, only there were five instead of three. This he pushed straight down into the mud, in the deepest parts of the river, and fetched up the eels sticking between the prongs.

Tutor. I have seen this method. It is called spearing of eels.

William. While I was looking at him, a heron came flying over my head, with his large flapping wings. He alighted at the next turn of the river, and I crept softly behind the bank to watch his motions. He had waded into the water as far as his long legs would carry him, and was standing with his neck drawn in, looking intently on the stream. Presently he darted his long bill as quick as lightning into the water, and drew out a fish, which he swallowed. I saw him catch another in the same manner. He then took alarm at some noise I made, and flew away slowly to a wood at some distance, where he settled.

Tutor. Probably his nest was there, for herons build upon the loftiest tree they can find, and sometimes in society together, like rooks. Formerly, when these birds were valued for the amusement of hawking, many gentlemen had their *heronries*, and a few are still remaining.

William. I think they are the largest wild birds we have.

Tutor. They are of great length and spread of wing, but their bodies are comparatively small.

William. I then turned homeward across the meadows, where I stopped awhile to look at a large flock of starlings, which kept flying about at no great distance. I could not tell, at first, what to make of them; for they rose all together from the ground, as thick as a swarm of bees, and formed themselves into a kind of black cloud, hovering over the field. After taking a short round, they settled again, and presently rose again in the same manner. I dare say there were hundreds of them.

Tutor. Perhaps so; for, in the fenny counties, their flocks are so numerous, as to break down whole acres of reeds by settling on them. This disposition of starlings to fly in close swarms was remarked even by Homer, who compares the foe flying from one of his heroes, to a *cloud* of starlings retiring dismayed at the approach of the hawk.

William. After I had left the meadows, I crossed the cornfields in the way to our house, and passed close by a deep marl-pit. Looking into it, I saw in one of the sides a cluster of what I took to be shells; and, upon going down, I picked up a clod of marl which was quite full of them; but how sea-shells could get there I cannot imagine.

Tutor. I do not wonder at your surprise, since many philosophers have been much perplexed to account for the same appearance. It is not uncommon to find great quantities of shells and relics of marine animals even in the bowels of high mountains very remote from the sea.

William I got to the high field next to our house just as the sun was setting, and I stood looking at it till it was quite lost. What a glorious sight! The clouds were tinged with purple and crimson, and yellow of all shades and hues, and the clear sky varied from blue to a fine green at

the horizon. But how large the sun appears, just as it sets! I think it seems twice as big as when it is over head.

Tutor. It does so; and you may probably have observed the same apparent enlargement of the moon at its rising.

William. I have; but pray what is the reason of this?

Tutor. It is an optical deception, depending upon principles which I cannot well explain to you, till you know more of that branch of science. But what a number of new ideas this afternoon's walk has afforded you! I do not wonder that you found it amusing; it has been very instructive, too. Did *you* see nothing of all these sights, Robert?

Robert. I saw some of them, but I did not take particular notice of them.

Tutor. Why not?

Robert. I do not know. I did not care about them; and I made the best of my way home.

Tutor. That would have been right, if you had been sent on a message; but, as you only walked for amusement, it would have been wiser to have sought out as many sources of it as possible. But so it is; one man walks through the world with his eyes open, and another with them shut; and upon this difference depends all the superiority of knowledge the one acquires above the other. I have known sailors who had been in all the quarters of the world, and could tell you nothing but the signs of the tippling-houses they frequented in the different ports, and the price and quality of the liquor. On the other hand, a Franklin could not cross the Channel without making some observations useful to mankind. While many a vacant, thoughtless youth, is whirled throughout Europe, without gaining a single idea worth crossing a street for; the observing eye and inquiring mind find matter of improvement and delight, in every ramble in town and country. Do *you*, then, William, continue to make use of your eyes; and *you*, Robert, learn that eyes were given you to use.

The preceding dialogue, if it has been attentively read, will probably enable the young student to write simple dialogues or conversations, similar to that presented in the following

Example.

DIALOGUE BETWEEN CHARLES AND HENRY, ABOUT DOGS.

Charles. Whose dog is that, Henry, which I saw in your yard yesterday?

Henry. He belongs to my uncle, who bought him, when he was very young, of a poor boy in the street. The boy appeared very destitute, and uncle bought him rather out of compassion for the boy, than because he wanted the dog.

Charles. Is he good for any thing,—has he been trained?

Henry. O yes; he is a very valuable animal. Uncle would not sell him at any price. He is an excellent water-

dog, and knows more than many boys of his own age. The other morning he was sitting in a chair at the window, from which he had been accustomed to look at the boys, as they were playing in the street, and, finding that he could not see through the window, on account of the frost on the glass, he applied his warm tongue to one of the panes, and, licking the frost from the glass, attempted to look out; but, the spot which he had cleared being only large enough to admit one eye, he immediately made another, in the same manner, for the other eye, by which he was enabled to enjoy the sight as usual.

Charles. That was very remarkable. But your uncle did not teach him to do that.

Henry. No; that was rather an operation of instinct than of training. But he will carry bundles, stand on two legs, find articles that are hidden, fetch things from the water, and is also well trained for hunting.

Charles. He is a water-dog, then, is he not?

Henry. O yes. He is very fond of the water himself, but will not allow others to go into it. Uncle has a fine situation at Nahant, on the water's edge, and many of his friends go there to bathe. But uncle is obliged to tie up *Guido*, the dog, when any one wishes to bathe; for the animal will not allow any one to go into the water, if he can prevent it.

Charles. That is very selfish in him. What do you suppose is the reason that he is unwilling that others should enjoy a thing, of which, you say, he is himself so very fond?

Henry. O, he has a good reason for that, as well as for every thing else he does. The reason is, that, one day, my little brother, George, was standing on a kind of wharf, built of stones, near the bathing place, and, happening to stoop over too far to look at some eels, that were gliding through the water below, he lost his balance and fell in. Nobody was near but Guido, and he immediatety jumped into the water, and held George up by the collar till some one came to his assistance. When the servant man, John, came to help George out of the water, Guido had nearly dragged him to the shore; but he found it rather hard work, for George is very fleshy, and, of course, quite heavy; and, although Guido has a good opinion of himself, and doubts not his ability to drag any one else out of the water, yet he reasons very

soundly, and thinks it much less trouble to prevent people from going into the water, than to drag them out when they have got in.

Charles. No wonder that your uncle values him; he is certainly a very valuable dog.

Henry. O, I could tell you a hundred stories about him, which would surprise you. The other day, George brought home a bundle from Miss Farrar's, for my sister Caroline, which he threw down on a chair in the entry, and then ran off to play. Caroline was in her chamber, and, hearing George come in, spoke to him from her room, not knowing that he had gone out, and requested him to bring it up stairs. Guido was lying on the rug by the fire in the parlor, and, hearing Caroline call for the bundle, immediately jumped up, and, taking the bundle in his mouth, carried it up stairs and dropped it at Caroline's feet.

Charles. I should be very happy to have such a dog, but mother is so afraid of a dog's running mad and biting us children, that she will not allow us to keep one.

Henry. Father says, that there is no fear of a dog's running mad, if he has plenty of water. He says, that the reason that we so seldom hear of a dog's running mad here in Boston is, because water is plenty here, and dogs can always get at it, if they have once found their way to the Frog Pond on the Common.

Charles. What is the name of that disease which people have who are bitten by mad dogs?

Henry. It is called *hydrophobia*, which is a Greek word, and means "fear of water." Dogs, when they are mad, cannot bear the sight of water; they will not drink; and therefore, whenever a dog *will* drink, you may be sure that he is not mad. When a person is bitten by a mad, or rabid animal, he expresses the same dread of water, and hence the disease is called, as I said, *hydrophobia*.

Charles. I thank you, Henry, for giving me all this information. I shall tell it all to mother, and as I have often heard her say, that your father is a very sensible man, perhaps she may overcome her fear of hydryphobia, and allow brother James and me to keep a dog.

Examples.

In the same manner the learner may write a simple dialogue about the following subjects:

A cat.	A walk.	A Sunday School excursion.
A fox.	A pair of skates.	A holiday visit.
A horse.	A tree,	An evening party.
A watch.	A kite.	A wedding.
A dress.	A book.	A funeral.
A ride.	A bonnet.	A baptism.
A meeting-house,	An excursion on the water.	The celebration of an anniversary.
A school.	A lesson.	A visit to a printing office.
A sled.	A new year's present.	
An evening party.	A walk about the city.	
A sleigh-ride.	An excursion into the woods.	

VIII.

WORDS.

Sentences consist of words, and words are used to express thoughts or ideas. The ideas which they express depend on their connexion with other words. Sometimes the same word will signify an action, an object, a quality, or an attribute. Thus, in the sentence "I shall *present* the book to Charles," the word "present" signifies an action. If I say "the book will then be a *present*," the word "*present*" will signify an object, and is a noun or name. But, if the sentence be, "Charles must be *present* when the book is given," the word "*present*" will signify an attribute, and is an adjective.

The proper use of words, and the correct understanding of them, constitutes one of the greatest difficulties in written language. It is therefore highly important that every writer be careful to use the proper word to express the idea which he wishes to communicate; and when he is required to use a word, that he endeavor thereby to express no other idea than that, which the word is intended to convey.

The Dictionary is however a very unsafe guide to the proper signification of words, because their meaning is so materially affected by the connexion in which they stand.

There are many words, the sound of which is exactly similar to the sound of other words that are spelt very differently. In using such words there is little danger of their being mistaken the one for the other, because, as has just been said, we are guided by the connexion in which they stand. But in writing them, many mistakes are frequently made, on account of the want of early attention to the subject of orthography. The object of this lesson is to afford an exercise in the use of such words as are both sounded and spelt alike, and of those which have the same sound and are spelt differently.

The remark may here be made that the change of a single letter, or the removal of the accent, frequently alters the entire character of a word. Thus the words *advise* and *practise*, which are verbs, expressing an action, by the change of the letter *s* to *c*, become *practice*, and *advice*, which are nouns. Again, the words comment′, increase′, are verbs; while com′ment, in′crease, &c. are nouns. In the use of such words, the student should be accustomed to note the word, in his early exercises, by the proper accent.

Example.

"I saw with some surprise that the Muses, whose business was to cheer and encourage those who were toiling up the *ascent*, would often sing in the bowers of pleasure, and accompany those who were enticed away at the call of the passions. They accompanied them, however, but a little way, and always forsook them when they lost sight of the hill. The tyrants then doubled their chains upon the unhappy captives, and led them away without resistance, and almost with their own *assent*, to the cells of Ignorance or the mansions of misery."

Johnson, slightly altered.

Example 2d.

"The bold design
Pleased highly those infernal states, and joy
Sparkled in all their eyes; with full *assent*
They rose."

Milton, Paradise Lost, B. 2d.

"He hath deserved worthily of his country; and his *ascent (namely, to the highest honors, &c.)* is not by such easy degrees as those who have been supple and courteous to the people."

Shakspeare, Coriolanus, Act 2d, Scene 2d.

Exercises.

Air, ere, heir; devise, device; altar, alter; trans'fer, transfer'; palate, pallet, palette; fane, fain, feign; bear, bare; bore, boar; council, counsel; coarse, course; ceiling, sealing; drawer, drawer; eminent, imminent; canon, cannon; freeze, frieze, frize; gnaw, nor; hoard, horde; horse, hoarse; heal, heel; haul, hall; key, quay; lead, led; lyre, liar; manor, manner; mien, mean; meat, meet, mete; pare, pear; peas, piece; practice, practise; assent, ascent; rite, right, write, wright; rose, rows; vein, vain; rain, rein, reign; raise, rays, raze; size, sighs; slay, sleigh, slaie; their, there; vale, veil, vail; white, wight; way, weigh, whey; you, yew; fare, fair; deer, dear; hue, hew; high, hie; hole, whole; seen, scene, seine; stile, style; straight, strait; waist, waste; bell, belle; sell, cell; herd, heard; wring, ring; aught, ought; lessen, lesson; profit, prophet; choler, collar; well, *(a noun,)* well, *(an adverb)*; per'fume, perfume'; subject'; sub'ject; ob'ject, object'; im'port, import'; pres'ent, present'; absent', ab'sent; sur'vey, survey'; fer'ment, ferment'; tor'ment, torment'; insult', in'sult; com'pact, compact'; con'cert, concert'; dis'count, discount'; rec'ord, record'; ex'tract, extract';* bow, beau; berry, bury; bough, bow; capitol, capital; cask, casque; censer, censor; claws, clause; site, cite, sight; clime, climb; complement, compliment; creek, creak; flue, flew; blew, blue; fort, forte; frays, phrase; herd, heard; slight, sleight; wave, waive.

OF PHRASES, CLAUSES, AND SENTENCES.

When names, whether proper, common, or abstract, are joined to their subjects by means of connecting words, but without a verb, the collection is called *a phrase*. As, The extent of the city; The path up the mountain; The house by the side of the river.

If the connecting word be a verb, the assemblage of words

* There are about sixty words in the English language that are thus distinguished by the accent alone. *See Rice's Composition, page 21st.*

is then styled *a clause*, a simple sentence, or a simple proposition, words of nearly equivalent import. As, The city is large. The path up the mountain was exceedingly steep. They are taught by a good master. *See Rice's Composition, pages 7th and 65th.*

The words *phrase* and *clause* may therefore be thus defined:

A phrase is a connected assemblage of words, *without* a finite verb.

A clause is a connected assemblage of words, *with* a finite verb.*

A sentence is an assemblage of words making complete sense.

The difference between a phrase, a clause, and a sentence, may be stated as follows: A sentence *always*, a clause *sometimes*, but a phrase *never* makes complete sense.

There are various kinds of phrases, such as substantive phrases, participial phrases, infinitive phrases, adverbial phrases, prepositional phrases, and interjectional phrases; so named from the office which they perform, or the parts of speech which they contain.

Clauses are frequently designated neuter, active-transitive, active-intransitive, and passive; in allusion to the verbs which form them. A clause which contains a relative pronoun is called a relative clause, and one containing a verb in the subjunctive mood is called the subjunctive clause. Specimens of most of these will be found in the following sentence:

Neuter clause, . . .	Darius was
Substantive phrase in apposition, .	a King of Persia.
Active clause, . . .	Alexander conquered Darius,
Relative clause, ...	who fled from the field of battle:
Passive clause, . . .	(but) he was assassinated
Substantive phrase, . . .	by one of his own generals, [der,
Participial phrase, . .	(who) coveting the favor of Alexan-
Minor active and relative clause,	slew his unfortunate master
Infinitive phrase, . . .	to secure his own interest
Substantive phrase. . .	with that monarch.

A sentence usually consists of three principal parts, the subject, the verb, and the object. As, The man struck the

* A *finite verb* is a verb that has a subject or nominative. Verbs in the infinitive mood, or the participle, as they have no nominative, are not considered *finite* verbs.

boy. Here *man* is the subject, *struck* the verb, and *boy* the object. Some verbs, however, admit no object, after them, and the sentence will then consist of only two principal parts, the subject and the verb. All the other parts of a sentence are merely adjuncts, relating to the principal parts, and designed to express some circumstance affecting their signification.

Sentences are of two kinds, simple sentences and compound sentences.

A simple sentence contains but one nominative and one finite verb. As, "Life is short."

A compound sentence contains two or more simple sentences, joined together by one or more connecting words. As, "Life is short, and art is long." The different parts of a compound sentence are called members.

Clauses are joined together to form compound sentences by conjunctions and relative pronouns; and phrases are, for the most part, united by prepositions and adverbs; the latter are also frequently employed to connect minor clauses with the other parts of a sentence.

Both the subject and the object of a verb may be expressed as follows:

First. By a single noun or pronoun. As, [John] struck [him.]

Secondly. By a series of nouns or pronouns. As, [Diligence, industry, and proper improvement of time] are material duties of the young.

Thirdly. By a substantive, or an infinitive phrase or phrases. As, [The acquisition of knowledge] is one of the most honorable occupations of youth.

Fourthly. By a noun or a pronoun, attended by a minor or relative clause. As, [The veil, which covers from our eyes the events of succeeding years] is a veil woven by the hand of mercy.

Fifthly. By an entire member of a compound sentence. As, [He who pretends to great sensibility towards men, and yet has no feeling for the high objects of religion, no heart to admire and adore the great Father of the Universe] has reason to distrust the truth and delicacy of his sensibility.

The object of this lesson is to make the student acquainted with the constituent parts and members of sentences, both

simple and compound. The exercises that are subjoined, are presented that he may distinguish the phrases from the clauses, the clauses from the sentences, the imperfect sentences from the perfect, and the simple from the compound.

Exercises.

The eye of the passing traveller may mark them, or mark them not, but they stand peacefully in thousands over all the land; and most beautiful do they make it, through all its wide valleys and narrow glens, — its low holms encircled by the rocky walls of some bonny burn, — its green mounts elated with their little crowning groves of plane trees, — its yellow cornfields, — its bare pastoral hill-sides, and all its heathy moors, on whose black bosom lie shining or concealed glades of excessive verdure, inhabited by flowers, and visited only by the far-flying bees.

By arguments so strong. If we could imagine. They all agree in the belief. The fearful consequences In spite of all admonition and reproof. Feel themselves at liberty. Such an undertaking would be vain. I am desirous of explaining. For the reasons already given. We cannot but rejoice that. Directed their attention. Attempted to prove. Make themselves accountable. The question which arises has puzzled. Has produced in our mind. Religion has its seat in the heart. Were now out in thousands. Would be expedient. Remains for us to notice. On the Sabbath morning. Overgrown with grass and moss. With somewhat diminished lustre. The daisies of a luxuriant spring had covered the spot. Opportunity of addressing each other. Had fatally infected. With indescribable pleasure. The most remote period of time. We hoped that this sight. The interior of the cavern. Very important purposes. Have a tendency to preserve. Withdraws his propitious light. However base or unworthy. Is the emblem of. How boundless. The tender assiduities of friendship. Irregular projecting rocks. Was peculiarly dear. With very great pleasure. The refulgent lamp of night. The science which treats of language is called Grammar. Writing is the art of making thoughts visible.

Now came still Evening on, and Twilight gray
Had in her sober livery all things clad.
The melancholy days have come, the saddest of the year,
Of wailing winds, and naked woods, and meadows brown and sere,
Heaped in the hollows of the grove, the withered leaves lie dead.
They rustle to the eddying gust, and to the rabbit's tread.

The lower animals, as far as we are able to judge, are entirely occupied with the objects of their present perceptions; and the case is nearly the same with the lower orders of our own species.

Diligence, industry and proper improvement of time, are material duties of the young.

Honor and shame from no condition rise;
Act well your part, there all the honor lies.

Charity, like the sun, brightens every object on which it shines.

Though I speak with the tongue of men and of angels and have not charity, I am nothing.

X.

USE OF WORDS, PHRASES, AND CLAUSES, IN THE EXPANSION OF THE IDEA.

The previous Exercise having rendered the student familiar with the parts of which a compound sentence is composed, it is now proposed that he be exercised in the construction of such sentences; as in the following

Example.

We went.

We went in a carriage.

We went in a carriage to the meeting.

We went in a carriage to the meeting last night.

We went in a carriage to the meeting in Church Street last night.

We went in a carriage to the meeting in Church Street last night, and heard an excellent sermon.

We went in a carriage to the meeting in Church Street last night, with a number of friends, and heard an excellent sermon from the Rev. Mr. Stevens.

We went in a carriage to the meeting in Church Street last night, with a number of friends from the country, and heard an excellent sermon from the Rev. Mr. Stevens, on the duties of children to their parents.

We went in a carriage to the meeting in Church Street last night, with a number of friends from the country, and heard an excellent sermon from the Rev. Mr. Stevens, on the duties of children to their parents, delivered in a very solemn and impressive manner.

Exercises.

In the same manner the student may expand the following simple sentences:

My father sailed.
John related.
If Henry had not disobeyed.
God created.
I remember.
Habitual indolence undermines.
They have done all they could.
A cat caught.
A thief was caught.
The lightning struck.
The river rolled.
The minister preached.

I heard John say.
Henry declared.
This book contains.
A horse ran away.
Gentleness corrects.
The boys took.
The servants returned.
My father keeps.
The ship sailed.
The master came.
A large number of peopled assembled.
Geography teaches.
The artist painted.
I have purchased.
His parents reside.
The boy fell.
The girls rose.
A mad dog bit.
The sheriff took.
The wind blew down.
The tide overflowed.
The earthquake destroyed.
The beggar came.
I heard him sing.

XI.

OF THE PARTS AND ADJUNCTS OF A SENTENCE.

The natural order of an English sentence is to place the subject with its adjuncts, if any, at the beginning of the sentence, and the verb and the objective, with their respective adjuncts after it. This order, however, it is not necessary always to preserve, but on the contrary the beauty and harmony of the sentence are often greatly increased by a departure from it. With respect to the cadence, or close of a sentence, care should be taken that it be not abrupt nor unpleasant. In order to give a sentence its proper close, the longest member and the fullest words should be reserved for the conclusion. But in the distribution of the members, and in the cadence of the period, as well as in the sentences themselves, variety must be observed; for the mind and the ear soon tire with a frequent repetition of the same tone.

In the following example the student will notice the different order in which the parts of the sentence are arranged, while they still collectively convey the same idea. The different forms of construction, which depend on the power of varying the arrangement, have a material effect upon the precision and harmony of the sentence; and therefore that arrangement is always to be preferred, which, while it sounds most harmoniously to the ear, conveys most clearly the idea intended to be expressed.

Example.

The poet must study variety, above all things, not only in professed descriptions of the scenery, but in frequent allusions to natural objects, which, of course, often occur in pastorals.

Above all things, the poet, not only in professed descriptions of the scenery, but in the frequent allusions to natural objects which occur of course in pastorals, must study variety.

Not only in professed descriptions of the scenery, but in the frequent allusions to natural objects, which occur, of course, in pastorals, the poet must, above all things, study variety.*

Exercises.

[The student will notice that in the following sentences, the members are very badly arranged. It is required of him to present them in such order as will make them most harmonious and exhibit the sense to the best advantage.]

There was a feeling of strangeness, as he passed through the village, that every thing should be just as it was when he left.

In the trees, there was a melancholy gusty sound, and the night was shutting in about it, as they drew near the house.

But not only from its relation to the past night, the morning is a fit time for devotion, but considered as an introduction to a new day.

To strengthen a character, which will fit me for heaven or for hell, to perform actions which will never be forgotten, to receive impressions which may never be effaced, to that world where I have often gone astray, I am to return.

Temptations which have often subdued me, this day, I am to meet; again with opportunities of usefulness, I am to help in deciding the hap-

* It will save much time and trouble in copying, if the student, in the preparation of his exercises, pursue the following method: placing the different members of the sentence in separate lines and numbering them, he may afterwards arrange them by their numbers, as in the following example:

1 We,
2 with the rest of our party,
3 notwithstanding the storm and darkness,
4 pursued,
5 our journey.

1, 4, 5, 3, 2,	4 1 5 2 3
1 4 5 2 3	4 1 5 3 2
1 3 4 5 2	5 1 4 2 3
2 1 4 5 3	5 1 4 3 2
2 3 1 4 5	2 4 1 5 3
3 1 2 4 5	3 2 1 4 5 &c.
3 2 1 4 5	

piness of their present and future life, in mending their characters, and to influence the minds of others.

Having on the mercy and protection of the Almighty cast ourselves, to the labor and duties which he imposes, with new confidence we should go forth.

Given in part to prayer, as of devotional topics and excitements, a variety it furnishes, this period should be.

And gone to testify of us to our judge, and that another day has gone, at this hour, naturally a reflecting mind will remember.

Time misspent and talents wasted, defective motives and irregular desires, if suffered to speak plainly and inspect faithfully, conscience will recount.

Between the brothers was no deadly and deep quarrel and of this unnatural estrangement the cause neither of them could tell.

In the little hollow that lay between the grave of their father, whose shroud was haply not yet still from the fall of dust to dust, and of their mother long since dead, as the brothers composedly but firmly stood, grasping each others hand, the minister said, "I must fulfill the promise which I made to your father on his death bed" and with a pleasant countenance stood beside them.

On a voyage in quest of a north-west passage to India, Henry Hudson in 1609, an Englishman in the service of the Dutch, discovered the noble river that bears his name.

XII.

SENTENCES.

The following words constitute a perfect sentence. It is required to arrange them into sentences.

Example.

1.

A gratitude emotion delightful is.
Gratitude is a delightful emotion.

2.

Exclamation interesting adverse when circumstances under Mark Antony this made "have all I except lost away given have I what."

Mark Antony, when under adverse circumstances, made this interesting exclamation · "I have lost all, except what I have given away."

Exercises.

Sorrows the poor pity sufferings of the and.

To itself others heart grateful the duty at performs once its and itself grateful endears.

Beings best of God kindest the is and.

Lamented an amiable youth sincere of terms in grief parent death affectionate the of a most.

Temper even and mild remarkably a possessed Sir Isaac Newton.

Words few these in duties contained all are moral our: By do done be would as you.

To eat and drink, instead of living do as many drink and eat we should, to live in order.

Glorious the Sun how an object is; but glorious more how much good is great that and good Being use for our made it who.

XIII.

CAPITAL LETTERS.

The first word of every book, chapter, letter, note, or any other piece of writing should begin with a capital letter.

The names of the months and the days of the week should always begin with a capital letter.

The first word after a period should begin with a capital letter.

The first word after every interrogation, or exclamation, should begin with a capital letter; unless a number of interrogative, or exclamatory sentences occur together, and are not totally independent.

The various names, or appellations of the Deity should begin with a capital letter; as, God, Jehovah, the Almighty, the Supreme Being, the Lord, Providence, the Messiah, the Holy Spirit, &c.

All proper names, such as the names of persons, places, streets, mountains, lakes, rivers, ships, &c., and adjectives derived from them, should begin with a capital letter.

The first word of a quotation after a colon, or when it is in a direct form, should begin with a capital letter.

The first word of an example, every substantative and principal word in the titles of books, and the first word of every line in poetry, should begin with a capital letter

The pronoun I, and the interjection O, are always written in capitals.

Any words, when remarkably emphatical, or when they are the principal subject of the composition, may begin with capitals.

Exercises.

when socrates Was Asked what Man Approached the Nearest to Perfect happiness, He answered, that man who Has The Fewest wants.

addison Has Remarked, with Equal piety and truth, that the Creation is a Perpetual feast To the mind of a Good man.

diligence, industry, and Proper improvement Of time, Are Material duties of the Young; but the young Often Neglect These duties.

how often shall my brother sin against me and I forgive him? till Seven Times?

but what Excuse can the englishman Plead? the custom Of duelling?

how many lessons are there in this book? are there More Than twenty-five?

why did You Not Arrive sooner? were you necessarily Detained?

daughter of faith, Awake! Arise! Illume
the Dread Unknown, The chaos of The tomb.

the lord My pasture Shall Prepare,
and Feed Me With A shepherd's care.

father of all in Every Age,
in Every Clime Adored,
by Saint, by savage, and By sage,
jehovah, jove, or lord

thou great first cause, least understood,
who All my Sense Confined (confinedst),
to Know But This, That thou Art good
and That myself Am Blind.

yet Gavest me In this Dark Estate, &c.

the language of Many of the european nations was derived From the Ancient latin.

The english and french Fleets had a Severe Engagement.

i saw the dutch Ambassador in the Carriage of the spanish consul.

Always remember this Ancient maxim, Spoken by the greek philosopher: "Know thyself."

The christian lawgiver Says, "take up Thy Cross Daily and follow me."

solomon observes, that "Pride goes Before Destruction."

johnson's dictionary has long been the standard of english orthography, but the work of doctor webster seems in a Fair way to Supplant It.

have you read rollin's ancient history.

thomson's seasons and cowper's task contain many Poetical Beauties.

i hope You will be able to Write Correctly All that i have Written.

XIV.

OF PUNCTUATION.*

Punctuation is the art of dividing a written composition into sentences, or parts of sentences; and is principally used to mark the grammatical divisions of a sentence. The marks employed in punctuation are sometimes used to note the different pauses and tones of voice, which the sense and an accurate pronunciation require.

The characters or marks, used in punctuation are:

The Comma †	,	The quotation marks	" "
The Semicolon ‡	;	The Diæresis	..
The Colon	:	Crotchets	()
The Period §	.	Brackets	[]

* The importance of correct punctuation may be seen by the following extract from the London Times of September, 1818.

"The contract lately made for lighting the town of Liverpool, during the ensuing year, has been thrown void by the misplacing of a comma in the advertisement, which ran thus: 'The lamps at present are about 4050 in number, and have in general two spouts each, composed of not less than twenty threads of cotton.' The contractor would have proceeded to furnish each lamp with the said twenty threads; but, this being but half the usual quantity, the commissioner discovered that the difference arose from the comma following, instead of preceding, the word *each*. The parties agreed to annul the contract, and a new one is now ordered."

Again; the meaning of the following sentence is materially affected by the punctuation:

"I said that he is dishonest it is true and I am sorry for it."

Now the pause placed after *dishonest*, will imply that *it is true* that he is *dishonest*, thus: "I said that he is dishonest; it is true, and I am sorry for it." But, if the pause be placed after true, the sentence implies that *it is* true that I said he is dishonest, and I am sorry that I said so, thus: "I said that he is dishonest, it is true; and I am sorry for it."

The misplacing of a comma, by a Mr. Sharpe, converted an innocent remark into a piece of horrid blasphemy: "Believing Richard Brothers to be a prophet sent, by God I have engraved his portrait." Had the comma been removed two words forward, the assertion would have been innocent.

† The word *comma* is derived from the Greek language, and properly designates a segment, section, or part *cut off* from a complete sentence. In its usual acceptation, it signifies the point, which marks the smaller segments, or portions of a period. It, therefore, represents the shortest pause, and consequently marks the least constructive or most dependent parts of a sentence.

‡ The word *semicolon* is derived from the Latin word *semi*. which means *half*, and the Greek word *kolon*, which signifies a member.

§ The word *period* is derived from the Greek language, and means "*a circuit.*"

The Exclamation	!	The Brace	}
The Interrogation	?		
The Dash	—	The Acute Accent	´
The Ellipsis		The Grave Accent	`
The Hyphen	-	The Circumflex Accent	^
The Breve	˘	The Caret	^
The Apostrophe	’	The Cedilla	ç

To these may be added the marks of reference:

The Asterisk	*	The Section	§
The Obelisk	†	The Parallels	‖
The Double Obelisk	‡	The Paragraph	¶

RULES OF PUNCTUATION.

1. When two or more words are connected without the connecting word being expressed, the comma supplies the place of that word; as, “Alfred was a brave, pious, patriotic prince.”

2. Those parts of a sentence which contain the relative pronoun, the case absolute, the nominative case independent, any parenthetical clause, and simple members of sentences, connected by words expressing a comparison, must be separated by commas; as, “The elephant, which you saw in the menagerie, took the child up with his trunk into his cage.” “Shame being lost, all virtue is lost.” “Peace, O Virtue, peace is all thine own.” “Better is a dinner of herbs with love, than a stalled ox and hatred therewith.”

3. The following words and phrases, and others similar to them, are generally separated by commas from the rest of the sentence; namely, Nay, so, however, hence, besides, perhaps, finally, in short, at least, moreover, again. first, secondly, thirdly, lastly, once more, on the contrary, &c.

4. The words of another writer, not formally introduced as a quotation, and words and clauses expressing contrast or opposition, though closely connected in construction, are separated by a comma; as, “I pity the man, who can travel from Dan to Beersheba and cry, ’T is all barren.”

> “Though deep, yet clear; though gentle, yet not dull;
> Strong, without rage; without o’erflowing, full.”

5. When the absence of a word is indicated in reading or speaking by a pause, its place may be supplied by a comma; as, “From law arises security; from security, inquiry; from inquiry, knowledge.”

6. Nouns in apposition, accompanied by explanatory words or phrases, are separated by commas; but if such nouns are single, or only form a proper name, they are not divided: as, “Paul the Apostle of the Gentiles was eminent for his zeal and knowledge.”

7. When a sentence consists of several members, each constituting a distinct proposition, and having a dependence upon each other, or upon some common clause, they are separated by semicolons; as, “Wisdom has builded her house; she hath hewn out her seven pillars; she hath

killed her beasts; she hath mingled her wine; she hath also furnished her table."

8. The colon is used to divide a sentence into two or more parts, which, although the sense be complete in each, are not wholly independent; as, "Nature felt her inability to extricate herself from the consequences of guilt: the gospel reveals the plan of Divine interposition and aid."

9. The colon * is used when an example, a quotation, or a speech is introduced; as, "The Scriptures give us an amiable representation of the Deity in these words: God is love."

10. The period is used at the end of a complete and independent sentence. It is also placed after initial letters, when used alone; and, likewise, after all abbreviations; as, "One clear and direct path is pointed out to man." "Fear God." "Have charity towards all men." "G. W." for "George Washington." "Geo." for "George." "Benj." for "Benjamin." "O. S." for "Old Style." "F. R. S." for "Fellow of the Royal Society."

In a general view, the period separates the paragraph into sentences; the semicolon divides a compound sentence into simple ones; and the comma collects into clauses the scattered circumstances of manner time, place, relation, &c., belonging to every verb and to every noun.

The note of interrogation,† or the question, as it is sometimes called, is placed after every sentence which contains a question; as, "Who is this?" "What have you in your hand?" "The Cyprians said to me, Why do you weep?"

The exclamation point is used to express any sudden or violent emotion; such as surprise, joy, grief, love, hatred, anger, pity, anxiety, ardent wish, &c. It is also used to mark an exalted idea of the Deity; and is generally placed after the nominative case independent; and after the noun or pronoun which follows an interjection; as, "How mischievous are the effects of war!" "O blissful days! Ah me! how soon ye pass!"

The exclamation point is also used after sentences containing a question when no answer is expected; as, "What is more amiable than virtue!"

Several exclamation points are sometimes used together, either in a parenthesis or by themselves, for the purpose of expressing ridicule, or a great degree of surprise, &c.

A parenthesis ‡ is a sentence, or a part of a sentence, inserted within

* Some very respectable grammarians tell us, that the propriety of using a colon or semicolon is sometimes determined by the use or omission of a conjunction; as, "Do not flatter yourself with the hope of perfect happiness: there is no such thing in the world:" "Do not flatter yourselves with the hope of perfect happiness; *for* there is no such thing in the world." But many respectable writers make no use of the colon; and it may well be questioned, whether the retention of this character among the marks of punctuation adds any thing to the clearness or precision of written language.

† The word *interrogation* is derived from the Latin, and means *a question.*

‡ The word *parenthesis* is derived from the Greek language, and means *an insertion.*

another sentence, but which may be omitted without injuring the sense or construction, and is enclosed between two curved lines like these; ().

The curved lines between which a parenthesis is enclosed are called crotchets.

Sometimes a sentence is enclosed between marks like these, [] which are called brackets

The following difference is to be noticed in the use of crotchets and brackets: Crotchets are used to enclose a sentence, or part of a sentence, which is inserted between the parts of another sentence: Brackets are generally used to separate two subjects, or to enclose an explanatory note or observation standing by itself. When a parenthesis occurs within another parenthesis, brackets enclose the former and crotchets the latter; as in the following sentence from Sterne: "I know the banker I deal with, or the physician I usually call in [there is no need, cried Dr. Slop (waking), to call in any physician in this case] to be neither of them men of much religion."

It may be here remarked, that a parenthesis is frequently placed between commas, instead of crotchets, &c.; but the best writers avoid the use of parentheses as much as is possible.

The hyphen * is a small mark placed between the parts of a compound word; as, sea-water, semi-circle.

The hyphen is also used to denote the long sound of a vowel; as, Epicurēan, decō-rum, balcō-ny.

The hyphen must always be put at the end of the line when part of a word is in one line and part in another; but, in this case, the letters of a syllable must never be separated; as, extraor-
dinary, not extr-
aordinary.

The dash is a straight mark longer than a hyphen; thus, —

The proper use of the dash is to express a sudden stop, or change of the subject; but, by modern writers, it is employed as a substitute for almost all of the other marks; being used sometimes for a comma, semi colon, colon, or period; sometimes for a question or an exclamation, and sometimes for crotchets and brackets to enclose a parenthesis.

An ellipsis † or omission of words, syllables, or letters, is indicated by various marks; sometimes by a dash; as, the k——g, for the king; sometimes by asterisks or stars, like these, * * * *; sometimes by hyphens, thus, - - - -; sometimes by small dots or periods, like these:

The breve (thus ⌣) is placed over a vowel to indicate its short sound; as, St. Hĕlena.

The apostrophe ‡ is a comma placed above the line. It is used as the sign of the possessive case, and sometimes indicates the omission of a letter or several letters; as, John's; "'T is" for "it is"; "tho'" for "though;" "lov'd" for "loved"; "I'll" for "I will."

The quotation marks, or inverted commas, as they are sometimes

* The word *hyphen* is derived from the Greek language, and signifies *under one*, or *together;* and is used to imply that the words or syllables, between which it is placed, are to be taken *together* as one word.

† The word *ellipsis* is derived from the Greek language, and means *an omission.*

‡ The word *apostrophe* is derived from the Greek language, and signifies the *turning away*, or *omission*, of one letter or more.

called, consist of four commas; two inverted, or upside down, at the beginning of a word, phrase, or sentence which is quoted or transcribed from some author in his own words; and two others, in their direct position, placed at the conclusion; as, An excellent poet says:

"The proper study of mankind is man."

Sometimes the quotation is marked by single, instead of double, commas.

The diæresis* consists of two periods placed over the latter of two vowels; to show that they are to be pronounced in separate syllables; as, Laocoön, Zoönomia, coöperate.

The brace is employed to unite several lines of poetry, or to connect a number of words with one common term; and it is also used to prevent a repetition in writing or printing; thus,

"Waller was smooth; but Dryden taught to join
The varying verse, the full-resounding line,
The long majestic march and energy divine."

C-e-o-u-s
C-i-o-u-s
S-c-i-o-u-s } are pronounced like shus.
T-i-o-u-s

The cedilla, or cerilla, is a curve line placed under the letter *c*, to show that it has the sound of *s*. It is used principally in words derived from the French language.

Thus, garçon, in which word the ç is to be pronounced like *s*.

The accents† are marks used to signify the proper pronunciation of words.

The accents are three in number;

The grave accent thus, `
The acute accent; thus, ´
The circumflex accent; thus, ^

The grave accent is represented by a mark placed over a letter, or syllable, to show that it must be pronounced with the falling inflection of the voice; as, Reuthàmir.

The acute accent is represented by a similar mark, pointing in the opposite direction, to show that the letter or syllable must be pronounced with the rising inflection of the voice; thus, Epicuréan, Européan.

The meaning of a sentence often depends on the kind of accent which is used; thus, the following sentence if the acute accent be used on the word *alone*, becomes a question.

"Pleased thou shalt hear, and thou alóne shalt hear?"

But, if the grave accent be placed on the word *alone*, it becomes a simple declaration; as,

* The word *diæresis* is derived from the Greek language, and signifies *a taking away*, or *a division*.

† The word *accent* is derived from the Latin language, and signifies *the tone of the voice*.

"Pleased thou shalt hear, and thou alone shalt hear."

The circumflex accent is the union of the grave and acute accents, and indicates that the syllable on which it is placed should have both the rising and the falling inflection of the voice.

The caret* is a mark resembling an inverted v, placed under the line. It is never used in printed books, but, in manuscripts it shows that something has been accidentally omitted; as,

recited
"George has his lesson."

The following marks are references; and are generally used to call attention to notes on words or sentences, placed at the bottom of the page:

The Asterisk,*	The Parallels,‖
The Obelisk,†	The Paragraph,¶
The Double Obelisk,‡	The Index, ☞
The Section,§	

When many notes occur on a page, and these marks are all exhausted, they are sometimes doubled. Figures and letters are also sometimes used instead of the above marks.

It is proper to remark, that in some books the section, §, and the paragraph, ¶, are used to mark the parts of composition, which in writing or printing should be separated.

A paragraph† denotes the beginning of a new subject or a sentence not connected with the foregoing.

A section‡ is used for subdividing a chapter into smaller parts.

It is proper here to remark, that every composition should be divided into paragraphs, when the sense will allow the separation. Different subjects, unless they are very short, or very numerous in a small compass, should be separated into paragraphs.

LXIV.

EPISTOLARY CORRESPONDENCE, OR LETTER WRITING.§

A Letter is, perhaps, one of the most common, as well as one of the most useful forms of composition, and there are few who can read and write at all, who are not frequently

* The word *caret* is derived from the Latin language, and signifies *it is wanting.*

† The word *paragraph* is derived from the Greek language, and signifies *an ascription in the margin.*

‡ The word *section* is derived from the Latin language, and signifies *a division* or *cutting.* The character which denotes a section seems to be made of *ss*, and to be an abbreviation of the words *signum sectionis*, the sign of the section.

§ It is generally allowed, that epistolary writing, if not one of the highest, is one of the most difficult branches of composition. An *elegant* letter is much more rare than an elegant specimen of any other kind of writing. It is for this reason, that the author has deviated from the usual order practised by respectable teachers, who give epistolary writing the first place in

upon to perform it. Under the head of Letter Writing, it is intended in this exercise to include all the forms of epistolary correspondence, whether in the shape of billets, notes, formal letters, or ceremonious cards, &c. It is proper to premise, that, whenever a letter is to be written, regard should be had to the usual forms of complimentary address, to the date, the superscription, and the closing. The folding, also, of the letter should not be disregarded. If it be true, that "trifles form the principal distinction between the refined and the unrefined," surely those trifles deserve some sort of consideration.

And, first, it is to be observed, that, whenever a *written* communication is made by one individual to another, the usages of society require that the *reply* should also be *written;* and that the same style of address should be preserved in both the communication and the reply. A different style, or form, seems to express a want of respect, or an arrogance of superior knowledge, — faults equally to be avoided in the intercourse of polished society.

If the letter is written in the *first* person, the reply should also be in the *first* person. Thus, when the letter begins:

"Dear Sir,

"I write to inform you," &c.,

the answer should be in the *first* person also; thus:

"Dear Sir,

"I have received your letter," &c., or "Your letter informing me, &c., has been received, and I hasten to say," &c.

If the letter is written in the *third* person, thus:

"Mr. Parker has the honor of informing the Hon. Mr. Brimmer," &c.,

the answer should also be in the *third* person; thus:

"Mr. Brimmer has received the letter of Mr. Parker," &c.

the attention of the student. He has deemed it expedient to reserve the subject for this part of the volume, and for the practice of the student who has been previously exercised in other attempts. At this stage of his progress, he may be profitably exercised in the writing of letters. The teacher may now require him to write notes, billets, and letters addressed to a real or fictitious person, announcing some event, or on some formal subject. The teacher cannot be too particular in his directions with regard to folding, sealing, &c., for early habits of negligence, or want of neatness, are with difficulty eradicated.

The name of the writer should always be subscribed to the letter when it is written in the *first* person, but never when it is written in the third. The date of the letter should also be written *at the beginning*, when the letter is written in the first person, and *at the end*, when it is written in the third. The address of the letter should be written under the signature, and towards the left side of the letter, when it is written in the first person, but not when it is written in the third.

A neat and well-written letter is a much more rare production than it ought to be. Few directions can be given with regard to the composition of a letter; but it is intended in this exercise to give some general directions with regard to the mechanical execution of letters, notes, and billets. And, first, with regard to Letters.

A letter should embrace the following particulars, namely: 1st. The date. 2d. The complimentary address. 3d. The body of the letter. 4th. The style, or complimentary closing. 5th. The signature; and, 6th. The address, with the title, if any.

The date should be written near the right hand upper corner of the sheet. The complimentary address follows, a little lower down, near the left hand side of the sheet. The body of the letter should be commenced very nearly under the last letter of the complimentary address. The style, or complimentary closing, should stand very nearly under the last letter of the body; the signature very nearly under the last letter of the style; and the address should be placed a little below the signature, and towards the left hand side of the sheet.

Example 1*st.*

FORM OF A LETTER.

Date.

Complimentary address.

Body of the Letter.

Style, or Complimentary Closing.

Signature.

Address, or Superscription.

Title, if any.

Example 2d.

A LETTER, WITH ITS PARTS.

(*date.*)
Boston, May 2d, 1843.

(*complimentary address.*)
Dear Sir,

(*body of the letter.*)
I have endeavored to present a few plain directions for letter-writing, which, I hope, will be sufficiently intelligible, without much labored explanation. If, however, I have unfortunately neglected any material point, I shall very gladly supply the deficiency, if you will have the kindness to mention it, either personally, or by note.

(*style, or complimentary closing.*)
Yours respectfully,

(*signature.*)
George C. S. Parker.

(*the address, or superscription.*)
Hon. James Harper.

(*title.*)
Mayor of New York.

In very formal letters, the address should precede the letter and the signature, so that the individual addressed may, at first sight, perceive that the communication is intended for him, before he has taken the trouble to read it through. In this case, also, the date should be written below, in the place of the address.

Example 3d.

A FORMAL LETTER.

To the Hon. Mr. Brimmer,
Mayor of Boston.
Sir,

The public schools of this commonwealth are under great obligations to you for your late munificent benefaction. That you may long live to witness, and to rejoice in the widely extended influences of that benefaction is the ardent wish of,

Sir,

Yours very respectfully,
Rich'd. G. Parker.

Boston, Aug. 3d, 1843.

The folding * of a letter, though in itself a thing of apparently trivial importance, is still deserving of attention. The following will be more intelligible than written directions.

* Official documents and very formal letters have, sometimes, but two folds; and these are made by doubling over the top and bottom parts of the whole sheet, or open letter, in the manner in which papers are generally kept on file. The whole is then enclosed in an envelope.

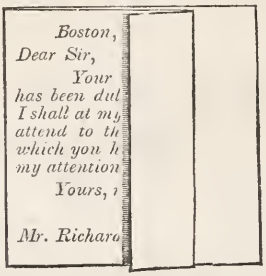
Example 4th.

This Cut represents the folding of a Letter.

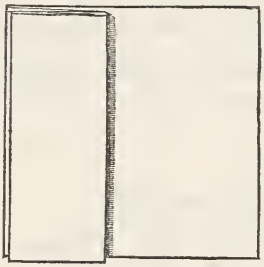
No. 1. The Letter before it is folded.

Boston, Feb. 9, 1844.
Dear Sir,
Your letter of the 7th has been duly received, and I shall, at my earliest leisure, attend to the business to which you have therein called my attention.
Yours respectfully,
John Smith.
Mr. Richard Roe.

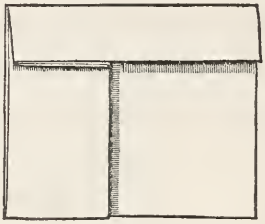
No. 2. The first fold, one fourth part of the first leaf turned over.



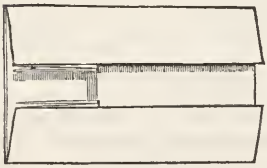
No. 3. The second fold; the folded part turned over so as to meet the left side of the sheet.



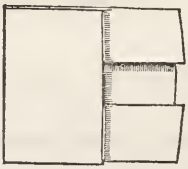
No. 4. The third fold.



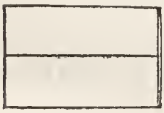
No. 5. The fourth fold



No. 6. The fifth fold.



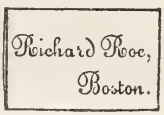
No. 7. The letter closed.



No. 8. The letter sealed.



No. 9. The letter directed.



TITLES.

In the superscription of a letter, the title of Honourable is generally given by courtesy to the Vice-President of the United States; to the Lieutenant-Governor of a State; to the Senators and Representatives of the United States; to the Senators of the respective States, and to the Judges of all the courts; to the Mayor of a city; to the Heads of Departments, &c. In addressing the President of the United States, the Governor of a Commonwealth, or an Ambassador of the United States, the title "His Excellency" * is generally used. †

* See *Antonomasia*, page 82.

† No titles are formally recognized by law in this country, except in Massachusetts, where the legal title of the Governor is "His Excellency," and that of the Lieutenant-Governor, "His Honor;" and, therefore, as it is stated above, it is *by courtesy* only, that the usage has obtained. As it is possible that this volume may fall into the hands of some individuals who are curious to know something of the forms of address in the mother country, the following directions are extracted from the grammar of Mr. Lennie, published in Edinburgh a few years ago.

"*Directions for Superscriptions and Forms of Address to Persons of every Rank.*

[The *superscription*, or what is put on the *outside* of a letter, is printed in Roman characters, and begins with *To*. The terms of *address* used in *beginning* either a letter, a petition, or verbal address, are printed in Italic letters, immediately after the superscription. The *blanks* are to be filled up with the *real* name and title.]

"To the King's Most Excellent Majesty, — *Sire*, or *May it please your Majesty*. Conclude a petition, or speech, with, — Your Majesty's most Loyal and Dutiful Subject.

To the Queen's Most Excellent Majesty, — *Madam*, or, *May it please your Majesty*.

To his Royal Highness, Frederick, Duke of York, — *May it please your Royal Highness*.

In the same manner address every other member of the Royal Family, *male* or *female*.

Nobility. To his Grace the Duke of ——, *My Lord Duke, Your Grace*, or, *May it please your Grace*.

To the Most Noble the Marquis of ——, *My Lord Marquis, Your Lordship*.

To the Right Honorable ——, Earl of ——, *My Lord, Your Lordship*.

To the Right Honorable Lord Viscount ——, *My Lord, May it please your Lordship*.

To the Right Honorable Baron ——, *My Lord, May it please your Lordship*.

The wives of noblemen have the same Titles with their husbands, thus:

To her Grace the Duchess of ——, *May it please your Grace*.

To the Right Honorable Lady Ann Rose, — *My Lady, May it please your Ladyship*.——

The titles of *Lord* and *Right Honorable* are given to all the sons of Dukes

The members of a house of representatives, or of a board of aldermen, taken collectively, should be addressed as "The Honorable," &c.

The title of Esquire is also given by courtesy in the superscription of a letter, to all gentlemen to whom we wish to show respect; but, when the title of Hon. or Honorable is

and Marquises, and to the eldest sons of Earls; and the title of *Lady* and *Right Honorable* to all their daughters. The younger sons of Earls are all *Honorables* and *Esquires*.

Right Honorable is due to Earls, Viscounts, and Barons, and to all the members of Her Majesty's Most* Honorable Privy Council, to the Lord Mayors of *London*, *York*, and *Dublin*, and to the Lord Provost of *Edinburgh*, during the time they are in office; to the Speaker of the House of Commons; to the Lords Commissioners of the Treasury, Admiralty, Trade, and Plantations, &c.

The House of Peers is addressed thus, — To the Right Honorable the Lords Spiritual and Temporal of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland in Parliament assembled. *My Lords*, *May it please your Lordships*.

The House of Commons is addressed thus, — To the Honorable the Knights, Citizens, and Burgesses of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland in Parliament assembled. *Gentlemen*, or, *May it please your Honors*.

The sons of Viscounts and Barons are styled Honorable and Esquire; and their daughters have their letters addressed thus, — to the Honorable Miss or Mrs. D. B.

The king's commission confers the title of *Honorable* on any gentleman in a place of honor or trust; such as, the Commissioners of Excise, His Majesty's Customs, Board of Control, &c., Admirals of the Navy, Generals, Lieutenant-Generals, and Colonels in the Army.

All noblemen, or men of title, in the army and navy, use their title by *right;* such as *Honorable*, before their title of rank, such as *Captain*, &c.; thus, the *Honorable Captain* James James of the ——, *Sir*, or *Your Honor*.

Honorable is due, also, to the Court of Directors of the East India Company, the Governors and Deputy-Governors of the Bank of England.

The title *Excellency* is given to all Ambassadors, Plenipotentiaries, Governors in foreign countries, to the Lord-Lieutenant, and to the Lords Justices of the Kingdom of Ireland. Address such thus, —

To his Excellency Sir ——, Bart., Her Britannic Majesty's Envoy Extraordinary, and Plenipotentiary to the Court of Rome, — *Your Excellency*, *May it please your Excellency*.

The title *Right Worshipful*, is given to the Sheriffs, Aldermen, and Recorder of London; and *Worshipful*, to the Aldermen and Recorders of other Corporations, and to Justices of the Peace in England, — *Sir*, or, *Your Worship*.

The Clergy are all styled *Reverend*, except the Archbishops and Bishops, who have something additional; thus, —

To his Grace the Archbishop of Canterbury, or, To the *Most* Reverend Father in God, Charles, Lord Archbishop of Canterbury, — *My Lord*, or, *Your Grace*.

To the *Right* Reverend Father in God, John, Lord Bishop of ——, *My Lord*, or, *Your Lordship*.

* The Privy Counsellors, taken collectively are styled his Majesty's *Most* Honorable Privy Council.

used, that of Esquire is always to be omitted, on the principle that the greater contains the less. For the same reason, the title Mr. should never precede that of Esquire.*

OF NOTES OF INVITATION.

Notes of invitation, except where a great degree of familiarity is used, are generally written in the third person, and on paper of smaller size, called billet paper. The answers should also be written in the third person, and the same forms of expression should be used, as those employed in the invitation. A departure from the form seems like arrogance of superior knowledge of propriety; but where an expression is manifestly out of place, or improper, the writer of the reply is by no means bound to sacrifice his own sense of propriety to the carelessness or the ignorance of the one who addresses him.

The same observations that were made with regard to the date of a letter addressed in the third person, apply also to

* In the address on the outside of a letter, note, &c., when the residence of the person addressed is unknown, but it is known that he is an inhabitant of the town or city in which we write, the word "*Present*" is frequently introduced to supply the place of the residence.

To the very Rev. Dr. A. B., Dean of ——, *Sir*.

To the Rev. Mr. Desk, or, To the Rev. John Desk.*

The general address to clergymen is, *Sir*, and when written to, *Reverena Sir*. Deans and Archdeacons are usually called *Mr. Dean*, *Mr. Archdeacon*.

Address the Principal of the University of Edinburgh thus, — To the Very Rev. Dr. B., Principal of the University of Edinburgh, — *Doctor;* when written to, *Very Rev. Doctor*. The other Professors thus, — To Dr. D. R., Professor of Logic in the University of E., — *Doctor*. If a Clergyman, say, — To the Rev. Dr. J. M., Professor of, &c., — *Reverend Doctor*.

Those who are not Drs. are styled *Esquire*, but not Mr. too; thus, — To J. P., Esq., Professor of Humanity in the University of Edinburgh, — *Sir*. If he has a literary title, it may be added. Thus, To J. P., Esq., A. M., Professor of, &c.

Magistrates, Barristers at Law, or Advocates, and Members of Parliament, viz. of the House of Commons (these last have *M. P.* after Esq.,) and all gentlemen in independent circumstances, are styled *Esquire*, and their wives Mrs."

* It seems to be unsettled whether *Mr.* should be used after *Reverend*, or not. In my opinion (says Mr. Lennie) it should, because it gives a clergyman his own honorary title over and above the common one. May we not use the Rev. *Mr.* as well as the Rev. *Dr.*? Besides, we do not always recollect whether his name is *James*, or *John*, &c. Mr., in such a case, would look better on the back of a letter than a long, ill-drawn dash, thus, *The Rev. —— Desk*. In short, *Mr.* is used by our best writers after Reverend, but not uniformly. The words *To the*, not being necessary on the *back* of a letter, are seldom used; but, in addressing it in the *inside*, left hand corner, at the bottom, they are generally used.

notes of invitation. The date should be at the bottom of the note, and at the left hand. *

Example 5th.

FORM OF NOTES OF INVITATION, WITH THE REPLY.

INVITATION FOR THE EVENING.

Mrs. Smith† requests the pleasure of Mr. and Mrs. Chapman's company on Thursday Eve'g, the 5th inst.

Beacon St.

Aug. 2d.

Example 6th.

THE REPLY.

Mr. and Mrs. Chapman accept with pleasure Mrs. Smith's invitation for Thursday Evening, the 5th inst.‡

Chestnut St.

Feb. 12th.

* When notes or letters are addressed to gentlemen of the same name, they should be addressed, "The Messrs.," or, "Messrs.;" if to two single ladies, "The Misses," not the "Miss." Thus, "The Misses Smith, or, "The Misses Davies," not, "The Miss Smiths," nor "The Miss Davises."

† As the lady is generally considered the head of the tea-table, there seems to be a propriety in the invitation to tea, or the evening, coming from the lady of the house alone.

‡ Or, *Mr. and Mrs Chapman regret that a previous engagement will de*

Example 7th.

INVITATION TO DINNER.

Mr. Tyler requests the pleasure of the Hon. Mr. Otis' company at dinner on Saturday next, at 5 o'clock.

Bowdoin Square,
Wednesday, 13th July.

Example 8th.

THE REPLY*

Mr. Otis accepts with pleasure Mr. Tyler's invitation to dinner on Saturday next, at 5 o'clock.

Beacon Street,
Thursday, 14th July.

prive them of the pleasure of accepting Mrs. Smith's polite invitation for Thursday evening, the 5th inst.

The address of a gentleman to a lady's invitation may be: *Mr. Chapman has the honor of accepting*, &c., or, *regrets that a previous engagement will prevent his having the honor*, &c.

* The latest and most approved style of folding notes, is to enclose them in an envelope, in the manner explained in reference to official documents, in the note on page 188th. The envelopes, ready made, are furnished by the stationer. If not enclosed, they generally have two folds only; and in directing them, the open part, or leaves, of the note should be ***on the left side.*** When enclosed, but one fold is necessary.

With regard to the sealing of a letter, if a wafer is to be used, care should be taken that it be not made too moist, for in that case, it will not receive a good impression from the seal; and, moreover, is apt to give the letter a soiled appearance. But they who are particular about these matters always use wax in preference to wafers.

LXXXI.

DIRECTIONS TO STUDENTS IN REVISING AND CORRECTING THEIR COMPOSITIONS, BEFORE THEY ARE PRESENTED TO THE TEACHER.

Read over your exercise to ascertain, 1. whether the words are correctly spelled; 2. the pauses and capital letters are properly used; 3. that the possessive case is correctly written with the apostrophe and the letter *s;* 4. the hyphen placed between the parts of a compound word, and also used at the end of the line when part of the word is in one line and another part in the succeeding line (recollecting, in this case, that *the letters of the same syllable must all be written in the same line*); 5. that the marks of quotation are inserted when you have borrowed a sentence or an expression from any one else; 6. whether the pronouns are all of the same number with their antecedents, and the verbs of the same number with their nominatives; 7. whether you can get rid of some of the "ands" in your exercise, by means of the rules laid down in Lesson XX., and whether some other words may not be omitted without weakening the expression, and also

whether you have introduced all the words necessary for the full expression of your ideas; 8. whether you have repeated the same word in the same sentence, or in any sentence near it, and have thus been betrayed into a tautology (See Lesson XXII.); 9. whether you cannot divide some of your long sentences into shorter ones, and thereby better preserve the unity of the sentence (See Lesson XXXI.); and lastly, whether part or parts of your exercise may not be divided into separate paragraphs.

The following rules must also be observed.

1. No abbreviations are allowable in prose, and numbers (except in dates) must be expressed in words, not in figures.
2. In all cases, excepting where despatch is absolutely necessary, the character &, and others of a similar nature, must not be used, but the whole word must be written out.
3. The letters of the same syllable must always be written in the same line. When there is not room in a line for *all* the letters of a syllable, they must *all* be carried into the next line; and when a word is divided by placing one or more of the syllables in one line, and the remainder in the following line, the hyphen must always be placed at the end of the former line.
4. The title of the piece must always be in a line by itself, and should be written in larger letters than the exercise itself.
5. The exercise should be commenced not at the extreme left hand of the line, but a little towards the right. Every separate paragraph should also commence in the same way.
6. The crotchets or brackets which enclose a parenthesis should be used as sparingly as possible. Their place may often be supplied by commas.

Suggestions to Teachers with regard to the written exercises of Students.

1. Examine the exercise in reference to all those points laid down in the directions for students in reviewing and correcting their compositions. (See page 303.)

2. Merits for composition should be predicated on their neatness, correctness, (in the particulars stated in the direc tions to pupils, page 303), length, style, &c.; but the highest merits should be given for the strongest evidence of intellect in the production of ideas, and original sentiments and forms of expression.

3. Words that are misspelt, should be spelled by the whole class, and those words which are frequently misspelt should

be recorded in a book kept for that purpose, and occasionally spelt on the slate by the class.

4. Keep a book in which the student may have the privilege to record such compositions as are of superior merit. This book should be kept in the hands of the teacher, and remain the permanent property of the institution. This will have an excellent effect, especially if additional merits are given for the recording of a composition.

5. A short lecture on the subject of the composition assigned to a class, showing its bearings, its divisions, and the manner in which it should be treated, will greatly facilitate their progress, and interest them in the exercise.

6. Have a set of arbitrary marks, which should be explained and understood by the class, by which the exercise should be corrected. This is, in fact, nothing less than a method of short hand, and will save the trouble of much writing.

7. *Insist* upon the point, that the exercise should be written in the student's *best hand*, with care, and without haste. For this purpose, ample time should always be allowed for the production of the exercise. A week at least, if not a fortnight, should intervene between the assigning and the requiring of the exercise. Negligence in the mechanical execution, will induce the neglect of the more important qualities.

8. Require the compositions to be written on alternate pages, leaving one page blank, for such remarks as may be suggested by the exercise, or for supplying such words or sentences as may have accidentally been omitted.

9. In correcting the exercises, care should be taken to preserve as much as possible the ideas which the pupil intended to express, making such alterations only as are necessary to give them clearness, unity, strength, and harmony, and a proper connexion with the subject, for it is the student's *own idea* which ought to be "*taught* how to shoot." An idea thus humored will thrive better than one which is not a native of the soil.

10. It is recommended that a uniformity be required in the size and quality of the paper of the exercises of the class — that the name (real or fictitious) of the writer, together with the date and number of the composition, be placed conspicuously on the back of the exercise. The writing should

be plain and without ornament, so that, no room being left for flourish or display, the principal attention of each student may be devoted to the language and the sentiments of his performances. It is also recommended, that the paper on which the exercise is written be a *letter* sheet folded once, or in quarto form, making four leaves or eight pages. This form is of use, especially in the earlier stages of his progress, because it enables him more easily to *fill a page*, and encourages him with the idea that he is making progress in his exercise. In the writing of compositions, a task to which all students address themselves with reluctance, nothing should be omitted by the teacher, however trivial it may at first appear, by which he may stimulate the student to exertion.

11. Accommodate the corrections to the style of the student's own production. An aim at too great correctness may possibly cramp the genius too much, by rendering the student timid and diffident; or perhaps discourage him altogether, by producing absolute despair of arriving at any degree of perfection. For this reason, the teacher should show the student where he has erred, either in the thought, the structure of the sentence, the syntax, or the choice of words. Every alteration, as has already been observed, should differ as little as possible from what the student has written; as giving an entire new cast to the thought and expression will lead him into an unknown path not easy to follow, and divert his mind from that original line of thinking which is natural to him.

12. In large institutions, where a class in composition is numerous, the teacher may avail himself of the assistance of the more advanced students, by requiring them to inspect the exercises of the younger. This must be managed with great delicacy; and no allusion be allowed to be made out of the recitation room, by the inspector, to the errors or mistakes which he has discovered. He should be required to note *in pencil*, his corrections and remarks, and sign his own name (also in pencil) to the exercise under that of the writer, to show that he is responsible for the corrections. *

* Instead of a written exercise, the teacher may, with advantage, occasionally present to the student a piece selected from some good writer; requiring him to present a rhetorical analysis of the same. This analysis should comprehend the following operations:

Parsing.

Punctuation.

carriage a ,

stretched

west; distancee,

Want of Unity.

a

related

elements

each that

was

, ,

of people

;

,

See Grammar, Part II., No. 108.

It was a beautiful evening, in the month of August, when I alighted from my carraige, at the house of [my] friend in the picturesque village of M. The broad and beautiful bay lay stretched out with its calm and glossy bosom to the west, while around me, in the distance might be seen little cottages trees, and hills, forming a most beautiful scenery. The setting Sun threw his golden beams upon the water, which did not look now like the grave of human beings.

Tempted by the beauty of the evening, I took a walk along the beach with [my] friend. During the conversation, he [remarked, if you please I will relate] the account of a shipwreck which happened here a short time ago. It was on a night when the [tempests] seemed to be at war with other, [when] one of the vessels belonging to this port [might be] seen approaching the coast, making signals of distress. Soon notwithstanding the severity of the weather a considerable number were gathered on the beach, for there were many expecting friends, and [the] fears [they felt] for their safety together with [their] pity for the sufferers, induced them to use every exertion for the safety of those on board.

The night was such, that it would have been almost instant death to [have] venture[d] upon the waters in an

mingled

ship could long survive such a tempest, and we were soon convinced that the vessel before us

launched determining

though it should endanger

(.)

were taken into

Despairing of saving more, the hardy fishermen reached the shore nearly exhausted with fatigue.

them, I assisted others in carrying the survivors

to stay

open boat, and we could render no assistance [to them.]

The shrieks of the unhappy persons, [mixed] with the roar of the wind and the driving of the rain, seemed more like a frightful dream than [the] dreadful reality.

But no [vessel could stand such a tempest long, and it] [was soon evident to us that she] was fast going to pieces. At length, as the storm abated [a little], four hardy fishermen [got out] their little boat, [determined] to do their best to save the sufferers, even [if it endangered] their own lives, while we stood on the shore to render assistance to any who might be saved. After rowing for some time, and making but slow progress, they finally reached the ship, but only to find it fast filling with water. One man was floating near, on a small piece of board, with a little girl lashed to him. These [they placed in] the boat, although but little hope could be entertained of their recovery. [They at last arrived at the shore, despairing of saving any more, and almost worn out with fatigue.] While some attended to [the brave fishermen, I and some others carried the persons who had been saved] to the nearest house. The man was indeed dead, but the little girl recovered, and is [now staying] with one of those who were the means of saving her life, until her friends can be found.

The preceding exercise is presented merely to show the mode in which, in conformity with the suggestions just made, the student's composition may be corrected. The exercise is one of a class of very young students By this example, the teacher will become acquainted with a set of arbitrary marks for the correction of errors, which may easily be explained to a class, and when understood will save the teacher much writing.

Thus, when a word is misspelt or incorrectly written, it will be sufficient to draw a horizontal line under it, as in the following exercise. If a capital is incorrectly used, or is wanted instead of a small letter, a short perpendicular mark is used. When entire words or expressions are to be altered, they are surrounded with black lines, and the correct expression is written on the blank page on the left. When merely the order of the words is to be altered, figures are written over the words designating the order in which they are to be read.

Transposition.

Synonymes, collected, applied, defined, distinguished, and illustrated.

Variety of expression, phrases generalized, particularized, translated from Latin to Saxon derivatives, and the reverse, expanded, compressed.

Figures of speech analyzed.

Students of higher grade may also be exercised in the *Logical Analysis* of the same subject, noticing the subject with its scope, topics, method, and lastly in a *Critical Analysis*, relating to the choice of words.

Structure of the sentences.
Style.
Eloquence.
Ideas.
Errors.
Beauties.

} Of these he will give the general character, with a particular analysis.

ORAL INSTRUCTION

IN

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Entered according to Act of Congress, in the year 1846, by Allen, Morrill & Wardwell, In the Clerk's Office of the District Court of Massachusetts.

[The following practical suggestions for the use of Teachers in presenting the subject of English Grammar to young learners, connected with familiar exercises in Composition, were prepared at our request by W. H. Wells, Instructor in Phillips Academy, Andover, Mass. They are published in the present form with the consent of Allen, Morrill & Wardwell, publishers of Wells's School Grammar, now* in press.—*Editor of the Journal of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction.*]

PARTS OF SPEECH.

The *classification* of words may be introduced by referring to the different kinds of trees; to the different kinds of animals; or to any other collection of objects that admit of a regular division into distinct classes. Thus, when we go into a forest, we find that the number of trees about us is greater than we can estimate. But we soon observe that a portion of them have certain striking resemblances, while they differ essentially from all the rest. We also observe that others, which differ materially from these, have similar resemblances to one another. And, by extending our observation, we find that this countless multitude of trees all belong to a very few simple classes, which are easily distinguished from each other. Those of one class we associate together, and call them *Oak* trees; those of another class we call *Pine* trees; and in this manner we proceed with all the different kinds.

Just so it is with the words of our language. Though there are more than 40,000 of them, yet we find, on a careful examination, that they all belong to less than a dozen different classes, called Parts of Speech; so that we have only to learn the character of these divisions, and we shall be able to tell the class to which any word in the language belongs.

* Jan. 1846.

By some such introductory illustration, the curiosity of a class of beginners may be easily excited, and they will thus be prepared to enter with eagerness upon the labor of learning to distinguish the different parts of speech.

The teacher should lead his pupils to take an active part in these lessons from the beginning; not only by proposing frequent questions for them to answer, but also by encouraging them to ask such questions as their own curiosity may suggest.

THE NOUN.

Having prepared the way for the consideration of *words*, the teacher next requests his pupils to mention the *names* of any objects that occur to them. They proceed with *book*, *desk*, *inkstand*, etc., which the teacher writes in a column on the black-board.

The teacher now asks a variety of questions, similar to the following:—Are all words names? Can you mention any words that are not names? Are *good* and *bad* names? Why not? Can you think of any object that has not a name? Do any objects that you cannot *see* or *touch* have names? Is *wise* a name? Is *wisdom? Virtue? Virtuous? Knowledge?*

After these questions have been disposed of, the pupils are informed that the *names* of all objects, whether material or immaterial, are called *nouns;* and the teacher proceeds at the same time to write this title over the column of names on the board.

One or more sentences are now placed in the hands of the pupils, or written on the board; and each member of the class proceeds to select all the nouns, and write them in a column on a slate or piece of paper. The teacher should commence with sentences of the simplest construction, and afterwards introduce more difficult forms of expression as the learners advance.

Model I.

The earth is a large globe or ball. Virtue is better than riches.

Nouns.

Earth
Globe
Ball
Virtue
Riches

Exercises of this description should be continued till the pupils are able to point out the nouns of any common sentence with readiness.

The teacher next writes several nouns on the black-board, and calls on the class to construct one or more sentences embracing the words which he has placed before them.

Model II.

Sun, bird, idleness, night.

The hawk is a bird of prey.—Idleness often leads to vice.—The sun shines by day and the moon by night.

After going through with several exercises of this kind, the pupils should be required to construct a variety of sentences, and write the letter *n* over all the nouns embraced in them.

Model III.

In winter the ponds and rivers are generally covered with ice.—Virginia is the largest State in the Union.

THE ADJECTIVE.

When the pupils have become sufficiently acquainted with the nature of nouns, they may be introduced to the class of *adjectives* in a similar manner. The teacher directs the attention of the pupils to a book, and asks if they can mention any words that express its *character* or *quality?* To this they will readily answer, that it is a *good* book, a *large* book, an *interesting* book, etc. The teacher then calls on them to name as many words as they can, that express the *qualities* of objects. As they proceed to enumerate words of this class, the teacher writes them in a column on the board as before.

Such expressions as "These books," "A wise man," "Ten days," are next written on the board; and the learners are requested to point out the words which serve to *define* or *limit* the nouns, but do not strictly *qualify* them. After this is done, they proceed to mention others of the same character, which are written under the column of *qualifying* words already commenced. It is now time to inform them that all words which are used to *qualify* or *define* nouns, belong to the class called *adjectives;* and this title is accordingly placed at the head of the column of words on the board.

The pupils may also be told, in this connection, that the words *a* or *an* and *the* are distinguished from other definitives by the title of *articles.*

Simple sentences are again placed before the pupils, and they are required to select all the adjectives, writing them in a column as before.

They should also distinguish the articles, by underlining them in the column.

Model IV.

Great men are not always wise. — The climate of Egypt is hot in summer, but delightful in winter.

Adjectives.
Great
Wise
The
Hot
Delightful

Other sentences are now given to the pupils, from which they select the nouns and the adjectives, writing them in separate columns, and distinguishing the articles as in the previous exercise.

Model V.

There are very few plants that will grow in all countries. — Ivory is a hard, solid and firm substance, of a white color.

Nouns.	Adjectives.
Plants	Few
Countries	All
Ivory	A
Substance	Hard
Color	Solid
	Firm
	A
	White

The teacher next writes a number of adjectives on the board, and the pupils proceed as before to form sentences which embrace them.

Model VI.

Diligent, cold, warm, sweet.

Charles is a diligent scholar. — In cold weather we protect ourselves by the use of warm clothing. — The rose is sweet, but it is surrounded with thorns.

After this, the pupils write sentences containing adjectives of their own selection. In exercises of this character, the learners should distinguish all the parts of speech to which they have attended, by their several abbreviations.

Model VII.

n *ar* *adj* *n* *adj* *n* *ar* *n*
Copper is a very useful metal, which is found in almost all parts of the world.
ar *adj* *n* *adj* *n* *adj*
It is of a red color, and may be drawn out into fine wire, or beaten into thin
n
leaves.

THE VERB.

This part of speech may be introduced in a manner similar to that exhibited in the following dialogue: —

Teacher. What part of speech is *horse* ?

Pupil. A *noun.*

T. Why ?

P. Because it is *a name.*

T. Can you think of any words that tell what the horse *does* ?

P. *Runs*, *walks*, etc.

T. Are *runs* and *walks* nouns ?

P. They are not.

T. Why not ?

P. Because they are not *names.*

T. Are they *adjectives* ?

P. They are not.

T. Why not ?

P. Because they do not *qualify* or *define* any thing.

T. Will you name as many words as you can recollect, that tell what any thing *does*, or that express some kind of *action* ?

P. *Speak*, *read*, *study*, *sing*, *play*, etc.

These words are written in a column on the board, after which the dialogue is continued: —

T. In the sentence, "The sea is calm," does the word *is* express any degree of *action* ?

P. It does not.

T. Does it express the *being* or *existence* of any thing ?

P. It does.

T. Can you name any other words that are used to express the *being* or *existence* of objects ?

P. *Am*, *was*, *live*, etc.

These words are placed under the column already commenced on the board, and the pupils are informed that all words which express *action*, and those which express *being* or *existence*, are called *verbs.*

A number of sentences are next placed before the pupils, from which they select all the verbs, writing them by themselves as in previous exercises.

Model VIII.

Birds fly in the air. — The earth shook and trembled. — Boston is the capital of Massachusetts. — I wrote a letter to my friend last week, and received an answer this morning.

Verbs.
Fly
Shook
Trembled
Is
Wrote
Received

Other sentences are now given to the learners, from which they select all the nouns, adjectives, and verbs, writing them in separate columns, and distinguishing the articles.

Model IX.

He came in the morning, and went away at night. — Truth never fears examination. — Venus is the brightest of all the planets. It is sometimes visible at mid-day.

Nouns.	Adjectives.	Verbs.
Morning	The	Came
Night	The	Went
Truth	Brightest	Fears
Examination	All	Is
Venus	The	Is
Planets	Visible	
Mid-day	The	

Several verbs are next placed before the learners, and they are required to form sentences which include them. (See Models II. and VI.)

The pupils next write sentences containing several verbs of their own choice; and distinguish all the verbs, adjectives, and nouns.

Model X.

ar n ar n v n v n ar
In the spring the farmer ploughs his ground and sows his seed; in the
n n v n ar n v
summer and autumn he gathers his harvest; and in the winter he cuts his
n v n
wood and threshes his grain.

The teacher should make frequent suggestions and explanations during these exercises. It is highly important that learners become thoroughly acquainted with the nature of verbs, before advancing to consider the other parts of speech.

THE PRONOUN.

Teacher. In the sentence, "John is diligent, and he will improve," for what name does the word *he* stand?

Pupil. John.

T. Can you mention any other names for which *he* is sometimes used?

P. George, Charles, man, boy, etc.

T. For what nouns does *she* stand?

P. Jane, Susan, girl, woman, etc.

T. What words besides *he* and *she* are used in the place of nouns?

P. Him, her, I, who, etc.

These words are written on the board under the title of *Pronouns;* and the pupils are informed that this term applies to all words which are used to supply the place of nouns.

Sentences are now placed before the learners, from which they select all the pronouns, and write them in a column by themselves. (See Models I. and IV.)

Other sentences are also given them, from which they select all the nouns, adjectives, verbs, and pronouns, writing them in columns as before. (See Models V. and IX.)

After this, the teacher writes several pronouns on the board, and the pupils form sentences embracing them. (See Models II. and VI.)

They then write sentences including a number of pronouns of their own choice.

Model XI.

ar n v ar n pro v
When the wind blows violently among the trees, they bend and almost
v pro n v adj pro v ar
break. Though their roots are very strong, they sometimes yield to the
n ar n v ar n
force of the wind and fall to the ground.

In this manner, the pupils secure by frequent repetition what they have before learned; and also cultivate habits of careful comparison and discrimination, by examining the different parts of speech in connection.

THE ADVERB.

Teacher. In the sentence, "The horse runs very rapidly," what word tells *how* the horse runs?

Pupil. Rapidly.

T. What word then does *rapidly* modify?

P. *Runs.*

T. What part of speech is *runs?*

P. A *verb.*

T. What word in the sentence modifies *rapidly?*

P. *Very.*

T. In the sentence, "He is an exceedingly diligent scholar," what word modifies *diligent?*

P. *Exceedingly.*

T. What part of speech is *diligent?*

P. An *adjective.*

T. The words *rapidly*, *exceedingly*, and *very*, all belong to the same class, and are called *adverbs.* *Rapidly* modifies a *verb; exceedingly* modifies an *adjective;* and *very* modifies an *adverb.* Just remember then, that all words which modify *verbs*, *adjectives*, or *adverbs*, belong to the class of *adverbs.*

T. Can you think of any other words that are used in this manner?

P. *Wisely*, *here*, *now*, *when*, etc.

These words are written in another column on the board, and headed *Adverbs.* When this is done, sentences are again placed before the pupils, from which they select all the adverbs, (Models I. and IV;) and others from which they select all the nouns, adjectives, verbs, pronouns, and adverbs. (See Models V. and IX.)

The teacher next writes a number of adverbs on the board, and the learners form sentences which embrace them. (See Models II. and VI.)

After this, they construct sentences containing adverbs selected by themselves, and distinguish all the parts of speech to which they have attended, as in former exercises. (See Models VII., X., and XI.)

THE PREPOSITION.

Teacher. When I say, "My hand is over the table," what word expresses the relation of my hand to the table?

Pupil. *Over.*

T. When I say, "My hand is under the table," what word then expresses the relation between my hand and the table?

P. *Under.*

T. Mention any other words that express the relation of different things to each other.

P. *On*, *between*, *in*, *above*, etc.

These words are written in a column on the board, and headed *Pre-*

positions. The pupils are told at the same time that every word which is used to express the relation of one word to another, belongs to this class.

Sentences are now given to the pupils, from which they select the prepositions; and others from which they select all the classes of words which they have learned. (See Models VIII. and IX.)

They then proceed to construct sentences containing prepositions assigned by the teacher; and others embracing examples of their own selection. (See Models VI. and XI.)

THE CONJUNCTION.

Teacher. In the sentence, "I saw James or his brother," what word connects *James* and *brother?*

Pupil. Or.

T. What word connects the different parts or clauses of the sentence, "James went to school, but John remained at home?"

P. But.

T. Can you think of any other words that are used to connect words, or clauses of a sentence?

P. And, nor, if, etc.

These words are written on the board in a column headed *Conjunctions;* and the pupils are told that all words used merely as *connectives,* belong to this class.

They are then required to select all the conjunctions from given sentences; and afterwards to write sentences containing conjunctions, and others embracing all the parts of speech which they have yet learned. (See previous Models.)

THE INTERJECTION.

Teacher. In the expression, "Alas! I am undone," what word is used merely to express strong *feeling* or *emotion?*

Pupil. Alas.

T. Can you name any other words that are used to express strong or sudden *emotion?*

P. Oh, ah, ho, etc.

These words are written in a column on the board; and the pupils are told that they form a class called *interjections.* They are then directed to write a few sentences containing examples of this part of speech.

GENERAL EXERCISES ON ALL THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

Having considered the several classes of words separately, the learners are now prepared to take up a variety of selections from their reading lessons, and classify the different words as they occur; writing those of each part of speech in a column by themselves. (See Models V. and IX.)

They should also devote several lessons to the writing of sentences which embrace copious examples of all the parts of speech; placing an abbreviation over each word to indicate the class to which it belongs. (See Models X. and XI.)

All exercises of this kind should be made *progressive.* From simple sentences, the learners should advance to the construction of those which are more difficult; and from difficult sentences, to short compositions; and from short compositions, to those of greater length.

By pursuing the course here described, the pupils will soon become familiar with the nature of words in common use, and be able to classify them with facility.

MORE PARTICULAR EXAMINATION OF THE DIFFERENT CLASSES OF WORDS.

The subdivision of the parts of speech, and their most important offices, may now be brought under consideration.

Nouns.

The distinction between *proper* and *common* nouns, and the distinctions of *gender*, *person*, *number* and *case*, may be severally introduced by familiar interrogative exercises, similar to those which have already been given to aid in distinguishing the parts of speech.

As soon as the pupils understand the nature of proper and common nouns, they are required to select all the nouns from given sentences, writing the proper nouns in one column and the common nouns in another. They then construct sentences which embrace examples of both proper and common nouns. (See previous Models.) The other distinctions of nouns should be illustrated and enforced by similar exercises. This will not only show that the learners are really possessed of the principles, but will also serve to fasten them more strongly in the memory.

Adjectives.

The *degrees of comparison* are now taken up, and made the basis of a familiar oral exercise. The distinction between *descriptive* and *definitive* adjectives should also receive some further attention. These distinctions are next exemplified in written exercises.

Verbs.

The *verb* is the most difficult and important of the parts of speech, and the teacher should make special effort to impart clear and correct views respecting its principal uses.

The division of verbs into *regular* and *irregular*, and the division into *transitive*, *intransitive*, and *passive*, should be introduced, like the division of nouns, with practical inductive exercises.

The government of the objective case by a transitive verb, and the agreement of a verb with its subject or nominative, may be explained in this connection.

The writing of illustrative sentences, on the part of the pupils, follows next in order. (See previous Models.)

It is generally better not to attempt a full exhibition of the *modes* and *tenses*, till pupils have advanced farther in the study. They should, however, be taught at this period to distinguish between *declaratory*, *conditional*, and *interrogative* sentences; and to determine whether the time denoted by a verb is *present*, *past*, or *future*.

A general idea of *participles*, and of *auxiliary* and *compound* verbs, may also be communicated at this time.

Each of these subjects should be explained in the familiar, conversational manner already described; and accompanied by practical exercises in the construction of sentences.

Pronouns, Prepositions, and Conjunctions.

The remaining points which demand special consideration in these introductory lessons, are the division of pronouns into *personal*, *relative*, and *interrogative*, together with the *person*, *number*, and *case* of pronouns; the *connection* of words and sentences by conjunctions; and the *relation* expressed by prepositions. These modifications, like those before presented, should be introduced in a familiar and practical manner, and made the basis of exercises in the construction of illustrative sentences.

Before closing this course of lessons, the learners should perform several exercises in composition, exemplifying all the important princi-

ples to which they have attended. The first exercise may embrace the different modifications of the noun; the second, those of the adjective; the third, those of the verb; the fourth, those of the pronoun; and the fifth, the principles relating to the remaining parts of speech.

Model XII.

Modifications of the Noun.

I am highly gratified, my dear friend, to learn that your efforts have proved successful. My brother and sister expect to leave Boston in about ten days. They will spend a day at Springfield, in compliance with your father's invitation. — I, Thomas Smith, have written this short composition.

Common nouns—Friend, efforts, brother, sister, days, day, compliance, father's, invitation, composition.

Proper nouns.—Boston, Springfield, Thomas Smith.

Nouns in the Masculine Gender.—Brother, father's, Thomas Smith.

Noun in the Feminine Gender.—Sister.

Nouns in the Neuter Gender.—Efforts, Boston, days, Springfield, compliance, invitation, composition.

Noun in the Common Gender.—Friend.

Noun in the First Person.—Thomas Smith.

Noun in the Second Person.—Friend.

Nouns in the Third Person.—Efforts, brother, sister, Boston, days, day, Springfield, compliance, father's, invitation, composition.

Nouns in the Singular Number.—Friend, brother, sister, Boston, day, Springfield, compliance, father's, invitation, Thomas Smith, composition.

Nouns in the Plural Number.—Efforts, days.

Nouns in the Nominative Case.—Efforts, brother, sister, Thomas Smith.

Noun in the Possessive Case.—Father's.

Nouns in the Objective Case.—Boston, days, day, Springfield, compliance, invitation, composition.

Noun in the Case Independent.—Friend.

After the pupils have in this manner exemplified the various modifications of all the parts of speech, they should be required to write several compositions of considerable length, and parse each word by itself. Thus, in parsing a noun, the learner tells why it is a noun; whether it is proper or common, and why; its gender, and why; person, and why; number, and why; case, and why. If it is in the nominative case, he points out the verb of which it is the subject; if in the possessive, the noun denoting the object possessed; if in the objective, the word which governs it. A similar course is adopted in parsing all the other parts of speech.

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